abſolute fee-ſimple; as alſo all my perſonal eſtate, whether ſtock, furniture, plate, money, or ſecurities for money, annuities for lives or for years, be the ſaid eſtate of what nature, quality, extent, or deſcription it may, to her ſole uncontrouled poſſeſſion and diſpoſal, as her property, in any manner which may ſeem proper to her to poſſeſs and diſpoſe of the ſame, whether it be real eſtate or perſonal eſtate, by her laſt Will or otherwiſe; it being my intention that ſhe may have as clear, as uncontrouled a right and a title thereto and therein as I poſſeſs my ſaid eſtate to uſe, expenditure, ſale, or deviſe. I hope theſe words are ſufficient to expreſs the abſolute, unconditioned, and unlimited right of complete ownerſhip I mean to give to her to the ſaid lands and goods; and I truſt that no words of ſurpluſſage or ambiguity may vitiate this my clear intention. There are no perſons who have a right, or I believe a diſpoſition, to complain of this bequeſt, which I have duly weighed, and made on a proper conſideration of my duties, and the relations in which I ſtand.

I alſo make my wife Jane Mary Burke aforeſaid my whole executrix of this my laſt Will, knowing that ſhe will receive advice and aſſiſtance from her and my excellent friends, Dr Walker King and Dr Lawrence, to whom I recommend her and her concerns, though that perhaps is needleſs, as they are as much attached to her as they are to me. I do it only to mark my ſpecial confidence in their affection, ſkill, and induſtry.

I wiſh that my dear wife may, as ſoon after my deceaſe as poſſible (which, after what has happened, ſhe will ſee with conſtancy and reſignation), make her Will with the advice and aſſiſtance of the two perſons I have named. But it is my wiſh alſo, that ſhe will not think herſelf bound up by any bequeſts ſhe may make in the ſaid will, and which, while ſhe lives, can be only intentions, as not during her life to uſe her property, with all the liberty I have given her over it, juſt if ſhe had written no will at all.

Having thus committed every thing to her diſcretion, I recommend, that if I ſhould not, during my life, give or ſecure to my dear niece, M. C. Haviland, wife of my worthy friend Capt. Haviland, the ſum of 1000l. or an annuity equivalent to it, that ſhe would beſtow upon her that ſum of money, or that annuity conditioned and limited in ſuch manner as ſhe, my wife aforeſaid, may think proper, by a deviſe in her Will or otherwiſe, as ſhe may find moſt convenient to the ſituation of her affairs, without preſſure upon her during her life. I certainly, ſome years ago, gave my niece reaſon to expect it; but I was not able to execute my intentions. If I do this in my life-time, this recommendation goes for nothing.—As to my other friends and relations and companions through life, and eſpecially the friends and companions of my ſon, who were the deareſt of mine, I am not unmindful of what I owe them. If I do not name them all here, and mark them with tokens of my remembrance, I hope they will not attribute it to unkindneſs, or to want of a due ſenſe of their merits towards me. My old friend and faithful companion, Will. Burke, knows his place in my heart. I do not mention him as Executor or Aſſiſtant. I know that he will attend to my wife; but I chuſe the two I have mentioned, as from their time of life, of greater activity. I recommend him to them.

In the political world I have made many connections, and ſome of them amongſt perſons of high rank. Their friendſhip, from political, became perſonal to me; and they have ſhewn it in a manner more than to ſatisfy the utmoſt demands that could be made from my love and ſincere attachment to them. They are the worthieſt people in the kingdom; their intentions are excellent, and I wiſh them every kind of ſucceſs. I bequeath my brother-in-law, John Nugent, and the friends in my poor ſon's liſt, which is in his mother's hands, to their protection; as to them and the reſt of my companions, who conſtantly honoured and chuſed our houſe as our inmates, I have put down their names in a liſt, that my wife

ſhould ſend them the uſual remembrance of little mourning rings, as a token of my remembrance. In ſpeaking of my friends, to whom I owe ſo many obligations, I ought to name eſpecially Lord Fitzwilliam, the Duke of Portland, and the Lord Cavendiſhes, with the Duke of Devonſhire, the worthy head of that family.

If the intimacy which I have had with others has been broken off by political difference on great queſtions concerning the ſtate of things exiſting and impending, I hope they will forgive whatever of general human infirmity, or of my own particular infirmity, has entered into that contention; I heartily entreat their forgiveneſs. I have nothing further to ſay.

Signed and ſealed as my laſt Will and Teſtament, this 10th day of Auguſt 1794, being written all with my own hand.

EDMUND BURKE, (*L. S.*)

In the preſence of
Dupont,
Wm. Webſter,
Walker King.

On reading the above Will, I have nothing to add or eſſentially to alter; but one point may want to be perfected and explained. In leaving my lands and hereditaments to my wife, I find that I have omitted the words which in Deeds create an Inheritance in Law. Now though I think them hardly neceſſary in a Will, yet, to obviate all doubts, I explain the matter in a Codicil which is annexed to this.

Jan. 22. 1797. EDMUND BURKE.

The Codicil concludes as follows:

I have now only to recommend to the kindneſs of my Lord Chancellor (Lord Loughborough), to his Grace the Duke of Portland, to the Moſt Honourable the Marquis of Buckingham, to the Right Honourable William Windham, and to Dr Lawrence, of the Commons, and Member of Parliament, that they will, after my death, continue their protection and favour to the Emigrant School at Penn, and will intreat with a weight, on which I dare not preſume, the Right Honourable William Pitt to continue the neceſſary allowance which he has ſo generouſly and charitably provided for thoſe unhappy children of meritorious parents; and that they will ſuperintend the ſame; which I wiſh to be under the immediate care and protection of Dr Walker King and Dr Lawrence; and that they will be pleaſed to exert their influence to place the ſaid young perſons in ſome military corps, or other ſervice, as may beſt ſuit their diſpoſitions and capacities, praying God to bleſs their endeavours.

Signed and ſealed as a Codicil to my Will, or an explanation and confirmation thereof, agreeably to the note placed at the end of it, this 30th day of January 1797.

EDMUND BURKE.

In the preſence of
Walker King,
Richard Burke,
Ed. Nagle.

ORIGINAL LETTERS.

[The following letter to M. de Voltaire, is tranſlated from the *Clef du Cabinet des Souverains.* The original is with the editor of that journal, who conſiders it the more valuable, as it is, he believes, the only letter of M. de Buffon which has yet been committed to the preſs.]

Montbard, Nov. 12, 1774.

IF you turn your eyes to the addreſs of this letter, you will ſee, that among the very ſmall number of beings of the higheſt order, I think moſt confidently and ſincerely that you are the firſt—Not, indeed, like the Mathematician of Syracuſe, whom from extreme politeneſs to me, you named Archimedes the Firſt; for there never will exiſt a ſecond Voltaire. This difference is eſſential between the creative mind, which

which draws every thing from its own refources, and the talent which, however great it may be, can only produce by imitation, or improve the difcoveries of others.

I had ventured to hope that my little note would not prove difagreable to you; but I believe I am indebted, in part, for its favourable reception, to the hands in which it was prefented to you. I can affure you, that from the firft moment I faw M. de Florian, he infpired me with the greateft confidence: I found him fo worthy to be your friend, that I long defired to fee him, that I might become his. This of courfe, to place in confequence of my fpeaking of you as I always thought, and as he always thought and fpoke himfelf, with that tender admiration which was conftftent with the fuperiority of the object he loved, and which could not have been expreffed if it had not been fincerely felt.

The laft circumftance which made an agreeable impreffion upon my heart, was the feeing your fignature. I felt an emotion of joy in opening your letter. I admired, with great pleafure, the firmnefs of your hand, and the vigour of the internal organ which guided it.—Though I have lived fewer years than you, I feem, however, older. Thus you have another fuperiority, of which I am far from being jealous. Is it not right that Nature, which from your infancy has covered you with her favours, and of whom you are the ancient lover of her choice, fhould continue to treat you with more attention than fuch a new addreffer as I am, who have never received any thing from her but by tormenting her? You may judge of the truth of this obfervation, as you have had the patience to read thofe dry Memoirs on Phyfics which ferve as the bafis of my Treatife on the Elements of Natural Hiftory: and you are not yet done with this labour; for I beg the permiffion to fend you another volume, which is about to be publifhed.

If I enjoy better health, I proteft to you that I fhall not wait your vifit at Montbard, and that I fhall haften to bear you the tribute of my veneration. It fhall be introduced to the deity by his faints, M. and Madame de Florian. I cherifh this agreeable hope, in confequence of the new fentiments of eftcem which you have teftified to me. Since I have been able to judge for myfelf, you have all my eftcem; but it makes but a grain of the immenfe glory which furrounds you: on the contrary, yours is, to me, a diamond of the greateft value.

I have the honour to be, with as much refpect as admiration, our humble and obedient fervant.

From Mr Foote.

YOU receive once again a letter from your humble fervant at Paris: *Paris*, the paradife for women,—the purgatory for men,—and the hell for horfes:—a purgatory from which I can hardly think we Engliih owe our deliverance to the interceffion of French catholics: but however it happens, whether from the fervency of their prayers, or the extravagance of their bills, there are very few of our countrymen in it; and to-morrow I fhall leffen the number, by a fhort trip into the province of Anjou.

I was yefterday at the chriftening of the prince of Conde's fon, at Verfailles. The archbifhop of Rheims waflied his face; which, to fay truth, it very much wanted. The boy was nine years of age, had the king for his fponfor, and the whole blood of the Bourbons attended.—Hume introduced three or four of our boobies.—I own I was a little ftruck, to fee a *Scotch deiftical* fchool-maifter the Engliih minifter at the court of his majefty *tres Chretienne*.—Dunkirk is totally demolifhed.—The French are moft confoundedly frightened at the thoughts of Pitt's being in power.—Wilkes is expected every moment at Paris.—The dauphin

is

is dangerouſly ill.—And ſo much for the news of the day.

I hope my little affairs are by this time concluded.—It is impoſſible for me to expreſs how much I am indebted to your kind aſſiſtance.—Pray let miſs S******* be ſupplied in all her reaſonable wants.—I wiſh ſome proper proviſion could be thought of for her.—She is really a very good girl, but, you know, my plan is œconomy.—One of our writers obſerves, that "after forty there is no ſporting with life;" now, though I love a joke as well as any man can do, it is high time for me to reflect, that

——— hæ nugæ ſeria ducunt
In mala.

So much for moraliſing and Latin.—I ſhall expect, with impatience, a line from you.—Let me know the ſtate of the ſtage, and whether Garrick——but, I think, I gave you my opinion that the great Roſcius would condeſcend to exhibit before a tavern kitchen fire in the dog-days, provided he could get a ſop in the pan.

Adieu, dear H*******, and believe me, moſt affectionately, yours,

SAMUEL FOOTE.

Paris, Sept. 27.

Of Dr Benjamin Franklin.

Paris, April 22. 1784.

I SEND you herewith a bill for ten louis d'ors. I do not pretend to give ſuch a ſum. I only *lend* it to you. When you ſhall return to your country, you cannot fail of getting into ſome buſineſs that will in time enable you to pay all your debts. In that caſe, when you meet with another honeſt man in ſimilar diſtreſs, you muſt *pay me* by lending this ſum to him, enjoining him to *diſcharge the debt* by a like operation, when he ſhall be able, and ſhall meet with ſuch another opportunity. I hope it may thus go through many hands before it meet with a *knave* to ſtop its progreſs. This is a trick of mine for doing a deal of good with little money. I am not rich enough to afford *much* to good works, and ſo am obliged to be ſparing, and make the moſt of a *little*.

SOME ACCOUNT OF THE CHINESE LANGUAGE.*

IN Chineſe, there are ſcarcely fifteen hundred diſtinct ſounds. In the written language, there are at leaſt eighty thouſand characters, or different forms of letters; which number, divided by the firſt, gives nearly fifty ſenſes, or characters, upon an average to every ſound expreſſed: a diſproportion, however, that gives more the appearance, than the reality, of equivocation and uncertainty to the oral language of the Chineſe. Johnſon's Engliſh dictionary affords inſtances of words taken in upwards of one hundred different ſenſes, without any doubt being thereby left in Engliſh converſation; where, indeed, if there were, no recourſe can be had for aſcertaining its preciſe ſenſe, as in the Chineſe, to the form of the written character peculiar to each ſenſe in which the word is received.

The number of words in any language, or at leaſt of ſenſes in which each word is underſtood, muſt depend chiefly on the ſtate of civilization to which the people that uſe it are arrived; and in ſome degree alſo, on the population of the country, and on the arts flouriſhing among them. It is not ſurpriſing, therefore, that the Chineſe dictionary ſhould contain, at leaſt, eighty thouſand characters. Perhaps if every one in which an Engliſh term is ſometimes received, were conſidered as a diſtinct word, and the vaſt variety of thoſe employed in the different arts and occupations of life, were taken into account, the number would not be much fewer than that of the Chineſe.

The characters of the Chineſe language were originally traced, in moſt inſtances, with a view to expreſs either real images, or the allegorical ſigns of ideas: a circle, for example, for the ſun, and a creſcent for the moon. A

* From Sir G. Staunton's Embaſſy.

man

man was represented by an erect figure, with lines to mark the extremities. It was evident that the difficulty and tediousness of imitation will have occasioned soon a change to traits more simple, and more quickly traced. Of the entire figure of a man, little more than the lower extremities only continue to be drawn, by two lines forming an angle with each other. A faint resemblance, in some few instances, still remains of the original forms in the present hieroglyphic characters; and the gradation of their changes is traced in several Chinese books. Not above half a dozen of the present characters consist each of a single line; but most of them consist of many; and a few of so many as seventy different strokes. The form of those characters has not been so flux as the sound or words, as appears in the instance of almost all the country bordering on the Chinese sea, or Eastern Asia, where the Chinese written, but not the oral language, is understood; in like manner as one form of Arabic figures to denote numbers, and one set of notes for music, are uniform and intelligible throughout Europe, notwithstanding the variety of languages.

A certain order or connection is to be perceived in the arrangement of the written characters of the Chinese; as if it had been formed originally upon a system, to take place at once, and not grow up, as other languages, by slow and distant intervals. Upwards of two hundred characters, generally consisting each of a few lines or strokes, are made to mark the principal objects of nature, somewhat in the manner of Bishop Wilkinson's divisions, in his ingenious book on the subject of universal language, or real character. These may be considered as the genera, or roots of language, in which every other word, or species, in a systematic sense, is referred to its proper genus. The heart is a genus, of which the representation of a curve line approaches somewhat to the form of the object; and the species referable to it include all the sentiments, passions, and affections, that agitate the human breast. Each species is accompanied by some mark denoting the genus, or heart. Under the genus "hand," are arranged most trades, and manual exercises. Under the genus "word," every sort of speech, study, writing, understanding, and debate. A horizontal line makes a unite; crossed by another line, it stands for ten, as it does in every nation which repeats the units after that number. The five elements of which the Chinese suppose all bodies in nature to be compounded, form so many genera, each of which comprehends a great number of species under it. As in every compound character, or species, the abridged mark of the genus is discernible by a student of that language, in a little time, he is enabled to consult the Chinese dictionary, in which the compound characters, or species, are arranged under their proper genera. The characters of these genera are placed at the beginning of the dictionary, in an order, which, like that of the alphabet, is invariable, and soon becomes familiar to the learner. The species under each genus follow each other, according to the number of strokes of which each consists, independently of the one, or few, which serve to point out the genus. The species wanted is thus soon found out. Its meaning and pronunciation are given through other words in common use, the first of which denotes its signification, and the other its sound. When no common word is found to render exactly the same sound, it is communicated by two words, with marks, to inform the inquirer that the consonant of the first word, and the vowel of the second, joined together, form the precise sound wanted.

The composition of many of the Chinese characters often displays considerable ingenuity; and serves also to give an insight into the opinions and manners of the people. The character expressive of happiness, includes abridged marks of land, the source of their physical, and of children, that of their moral, enjoyments. This character, embellished in a variety of ways, is hung up almost in

every houſe. Sometimes written by the hand of the Emperor, it is ſent by him as a compliment, which is very highly prized; and ſuch as he was pleaſed to ſend to the Ambaſſador.

Upon the formation, changes, and alluſions of compound characters, the Chineſe have publiſhed many thouſand volumes of philological learning. Nowhere does criticiſm more abound, or is more ſtrict. The introduction, or alteration of a character is a ſerious undertaking; and ſeldom fails to meet with oppoſition, the moſt ancient writings of the Chineſe are ſtill claſſical amongſt them. The language ſeems in no inſtance to have been derived from, or mixed with, any other. The written ſeems to have followed the oral language ſoon after the men who ſpoke it were formed into a regular ſociety. Tho' it is likely that all hieroglyphical languages were originally founded on the principles of imitation, yet in the gradual progreſs towards arbitrary forms and ſounds, it is probable that every ſociety deviated from the originals, in a different manner from the others; and thus for every independent ſociety, there aroſe a ſeparate hieroglyphic language. As ſoon as a communication took place between any two of them, each would bear names and ſounds not common to both. Each reciprocally would mark down ſuch names, in the ſounds of its own characters, bearing, as hieroglyphics, a different ſenſe. In that inſtance, conſequently, theſe characters ceaſe to be hieroglyphics, and were merely marks of ſound. If the foreign ſounds could not be expreſſed but by the uſe of a part of two hieroglyphics, in the manner mentioned to be uſed ſometimes in Chineſe dictionaries, the two marks joined together become in fact a ſyllable. If a frequent intercourſe ſhould take place between communities, ſpeaking different languages, the neceſſity of uſing hieroglyphics merely as marks of ſound, would frequently recur. The practice would lead imperceptibly to the diſcovery that, with a few hieroglyphics, every ſound of the foreign language might be expreſſed; and the hieroglyphics, which anſwered beſt this purpoſe, either as to exactneſs of ſound, of ſimplicity of form, would be ſelected for this particular uſe; and, ſerving as ſo many letters, would form, in fact, together what is called an alphabet. This natural progreſſion, has actually taken place in Canton, where, on account of the vaſt concourſe of perſons uſing the Engliſh language, who reſort to it, a vocabulary has been publiſhed of Engliſh words in Chineſe characters, expreſſive merely of ſound, for the uſe of the native merchants concerned in foreign trade: and who, by ſuch means, learn the ſound of Engliſh words. To each character is annexed a mark, to denote that it is not intended to convey the idea, but merely the foreign ſound attached to it. The habit of applying the ſound, inſtead of the meaning of hieroglyphics, to foreign words, led to the application of them likewiſe as ſounds, to aſſiſt the memory in the pronunciation of other hieroglyphics in the ſame language, but not in common uſe; and the repeated application of them for thoſe purpoſes may be at length ſuppoſed to have effaced their original uſe. Thus the paſſage from hieroglyphic to alphabetic writing may naturally be traced, without the neceſſity of having "recourſe to divine inſtruction," as ſome learned men have conjectured, "on the ground that the art of writing by an alphabet is too refined and artificial for untutored reaſon." It is indeed, equally natural to ſuppoſe that no ſuch art has preceded the eſtabliſhment of hieroglyphic, as that a mixture of other nations ſuperinduced the invention of alphabetic language. The excluſive exiſtence of the former ſtill in China is a proof and inſtance, that the number of foreigners who had ever found their way among them, as the Tartars, for example, however warlike and victorious, bore ſo very ſmall a proportion to the vanquiſhed, that it introduced no more a change in their uſages and manners, than in language.

EFFECTS OF DEMOCRACY.

From Biſſets' Sketch of Democracy.*

ATHENS.

THE power of the eſtate was lodged in the hands of 400 perſons.

"THESE being men (ſays he) taken from the mob, behaved with that violence and inſolence, which characterizes low people raiſed above their former equals. The Athenians had not attended in their change to the real cauſe of the inefficacy of democracy to produce ſecurity and happineſs; the want of controuling orders. The four hundred were as uncontrouled as had been the people at large in the democracy. They gained no more by the change, than did the French by their change from the club and mob government in the time of Petion, Briſſot, and Condorcet, to that of the junto of Danton, Marat, and Robeſpierre. The Athenians ſoon tired of their four hundred, and re-eſtabliſhed democracy. Alcibiades, the Barrere of the time in verſatility, though infinitely ſuperior in talents, and ſomewhat leſs profligate in conduct, took the lead in the re-eſtabliſhed democracy. He defeated the Peloponneſians in various engagements, and had almoſt reſtored the Athenians to their former ſuperiority. Here again the inconſiſtency of a mob government ſtrikingly appears. The Athenian populace, becauſe Alcibiades had often been ſucceſsful, had, with a wiſdom worthy of ſuch perſonages, concluded him to invincible. He was once unſucceſsful; this without any evidence, they imputed to treachery. He was again condemned unheard, and betook himſelf to baniſhment.——His ſucceſsors in the command, being leſs able, were alſo defeated. They were tried with the utmoſt irregularity and unfairneſs, condemned, and executed. The all-ruling people compelled their court to give the fatal verdict. Such is the juſtice of democratic tribunals. The folly and violence of the Athenians at laſt brought the natural conſequence, the ruin of the ſtate. Having deprived themſelves of their ableſt generals, they were defeated in a deciſive battle. Athens was taken, diſmantled, and made a dependency of Sparta. Thirty perſons were eſtabliſhed by Lyſander the Spartan general, to govern Athens with unlimited power.

Theſe tyrants committed every act of wickedneſs with impunity. Alcibiades made ſome efforts to relieve his country; but was murdered, at the inſtigation of Lyſander, before they could be effectual.

The ability and virtue of Thraſybulus expelled the tyrants. Humbled however, diſmantled, and exhauſted, Athens, for ſome time after the expulſion of the tyrants, took little concern in the affairs of Greece. The effects of the democracy were therefore to be ſeen ſolely in her domeſtic proceedings. Of theſe we have a moſt ſtriking inſtance in the treatment of Socrates. It was ſaid by a French revolutioniſt, either in the national convention, or in one of their clubs, "that true republicans ought not to bear even the ariſtocracy of virtue." New perhaps as this might be, as a declaration, it certainly was neither new, nor uncommon as a principle. The proceedings of every democracy illuſtrate the danger of ſuperiority of virtue, as well as of talents, or any other excellence.

Every man who is not an ideot, may be an uſeful member of ſociety. Whoever is an uſeful, is a reſpectable member; but one can only be uſeful, by ſteadily and habitually purſuing objects within the ſphere of his powers and knowledge. The mechanic, the journeyman, the labourer, are uſeful, nay reſpectable members of every well-conſtituted ſociety, but it is as mechanic, journeyman, and labourer, that they can poſſeſs that uſefulneſs, and conſequently reſpectability. When therefore the carpenter, the ſhoemaker, the labourer, inſtead of faſhioning timber, leather, or earth,

*See p. 473.

earth, to beneficial purpoſes, takes to faſhioning the ſtate, he does a double miſchief, by neglecting that which he can do, and trying that which he cannot. This idleneſs makes him poor, and conſequently internally a burden to the community, to which his political projects, from his incapacity of forming or executing good ones, would be both internally and externally ruinous. Within their own ſphere, the lower orders are a great ſupport of ſociety; going beyond it, they bring ruin on themſelves and others. So it fared with the Athenians; and ſimilar cauſes will always produce ſimilar effects. Whoever with care and intelligence ſtudies the hiſtory of the Athenians, will be from that alone convinced of the inefficacy of democracy, to the production of general happineſs."

ROME.

Dr Biſſet ſtates the caſe of thoſe concerned in Cataline's conſpiracy in the following terms:

"A debate took place in the ſenate concerning the diſpoſal of the conſpirators. Moſt of the ſenators argued, that as there could be no doubt of their guilty intentions they ſhould be put ſummarily to death. Cæſar on the contrary ſaid that whatever might be their wickedneſs, the law had not annexed the puniſhment of death to ſuch proceedings, and that therefore they ought not to be capitally puniſhed. The virtuous and patriotic Cato conſidered leſs the letter of the law than general equity and expediency. It was juſt, he ſaid, thoſe who were deviſing the murder of the ſupreme magiſtrate, and of all good men, and the ſubverſion of the ſtate, ſhould be puniſhed by death for thoſe wicked and traitorous compaſſings; and that it was expedient that thoſe who ſhewed a deſign to do the greateſt miſchief to their country, ſhould be for ever deprived of the power. Cicero took the ſame ſide with Cato. The majority of the ſenate concurred. The conſpirators were put to death without a formal trial.

This was certainly a deviation from the uſual courſe of law, but a deviation, from the irregularity and violence of the democracy abſolutely neceſſary. So unfavourable is democracy to tranquillity and order, that almoſt every ſtep which the ſenate at any time took for reſtoring public peace was literally a deviation from the conſtitution.

Thus have we ſeen that the prevalence of democracy was the principle cauſe of the misfortunes of Rome, and that the wiſdom and patriotiſm of the ſenate frequently made the evils ceaſe to flow, but as they could not dry up the ſource, the ceſſation was only temporary. Democracy cheriſhed the vicious, overcame the virtuous, perverted the able, to ruin their country. From democracy the Romans had almoſt fallen under the hand of Hannibal; from democracy were the Gracchi the authors of violence and inſurrection, Saturninus and Sulpicious of maſſacres, Marius of civil war; from democracy ſprung the conſpiracy of Cataline, the combination of the triumvirate, the murders of Clodius, the fruſtration of Cicero's ingenuity, benevolence, and patriotiſm; the inefficacy of Cato's virtues, and the perverſion of Cæſar's unequalled intellect. From democracy exalting Cæſar ſprung permanent deſpotiſm, and the attrocious wickedneſs of ſucceeding emperors. Domitian, Caligula, and Nero, were the lineal deſcendants of democracy. Whoever with impartiality and common obſervation ſtudies the hiſtory of the greateſt nation which the ancient world ever ſaw, will perceive that to ariſtocratic authority and exertions it owed its riſe, to prepollent democracy it owed its fall; will in the detail of democratic operations ſee diſorder, convulſion, confiſcation, rapine, maſſacres, and every ſpecies of injuſtice, oppreſſion, and cruelty; and in the general reſult, will behold the conſummation of human miſery."

BRITISH CONSTITUTION.

"Our conſtitution, for a century aſcertained and confirmed, is of all political

litical ſyſtems recorded in hiſtory, the moſt perfectly fitted for the attainment and preſervation of individual and national happineſs. Our juriſprudence has a moſt exact coincidence with natural ethics. It allows every action, every exertion of freedom which morality ſanctions. Its reſtraints are commenſurate with the reſtraints of conſcience. We may ſpeak, write, do whatever we pleaſe, if we abſtain from injury. Our polity ſecures to our law the full operation and effect. The judicial examiners of our conduct are men taken from ourſelves, and having the moſt powerful motives to juſtice, as on the purity of their judgments depends their own ſecurity.

Our lawgivers can make no laws which do not equally bind themſelves as the reſt of the community. Our *Parliament* has an *identity* of *intereſts* with us; that being the caſe it matters little to individuals whether they have a vote or not in the election of its members. My rights who have no vote, are as well ſecured as thoſe of any elector in the kingdom. No man can be deprived of his liberty, property, or life, but for his own act of private or public injury. Every one of common underſtanding, induſtry, and conduct, may generally earn a comfortable independent livelihood, and is, in caſe of unavoidable misfortune, relieved from want. Individual diſtreſs is removed by general proſperity, and general liberality, reſulting from excellence of political ſyſtem.

To ſecure the enjoyment of our happineſs undiſturbed by domeſtic and foreign enemies, ſome of our property is applied. The legiſlature finds it neceſſary to expend a part to preſerve the whole. Its wiſdom and humanity apportion impoſts to the ability of the contributer, from the average property of its members, paying itſelf a very large ſhare.

Our *Church* is equally removed from fanaticiſm and infidelity; pious without enthuſiaſm, liberal without laxity; by precept and example inculcating virtue and religion. The political principles it teaches are thoſe of our civil polity. It grants indulgence to Nonconformiſts in every opinion not productive of vices and impiety, or ſubverſive of our happy eſtabliſhment.

Our *King* has an *identity* of *intereſt* with the ſeveral orders, civil and eccleſiaſtical, and with the people at large. The friends and enemies of the people, the eſtabliſhment, and the ſovereign are the ſame. Every true *Patriot* is a lover of the *Conſtitution* and of the *King*.

Under ſuch a ſyſtem, and the characters which it produces, we of this country enjoy, and have long enjoyed, a happineſs unequalled in the annals of hiſtory. Malignants may try to make the weak and ignorant fancy otherwiſe, but it muſt be either ignorance of fact or incapacity of reaſoning, that can produce aſſent to ſuch notions. The more a man is converſant with the hiſtory of mankind, and their comparative ſtate in different ſituations, the more clearly will he ſee, that none in the various conſtituents of *Happineſs* equal, or ever equalled, the *ſubjects* of the *Britiſh Government*."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE SCOTS MAGAZINE.

SIR,

THE following Charge given to a Grand Jury in England, in the year 1706, is ſo applicable to the preſent times, that I could not reſiſt ſending it for a place in your Magazine. I have kept out what was particular to the occaſion, and I dare ſay, moſt of your readers will read it with ſatisfaction, and I hope with profit, in ſtrengthening their attachment to our ineſtimable conſtitution. Let me add, that it was delivered by a Gentleman who was a warm friend to republican principles.

ON THE SUPPRESSION OF VICE, &c.

Being a Charge to a Grand Jury in England.

'TIS the great happineſs of Britain, that we have a King on our Throne who is not content with being a living example of piety and goodneſs to his people, but does recommend the practice of them to others, by all due rewards and encouragements; and takes care to check the growth of impiety and debauchery, by letting looſe the laws with their utmoſt ſeverity againſt them.

One would think to a chriſtian nation, that religion and conſcience, our own hopes and fears, and the proſpect of eternal happineſs or endleſs miſery, ſhould be conſiderations ſtrong enough to lay an effectual reſtraint on the moſt violent luſts and appetites: but we find the contrary by ſad experience; and therefore the wiſdom of the legiſlative power has thought it neceſſary to interpoſe, and to back and inforce the obligations of the law of God by the addition of temporal penalties: not that human laws can add any weight or authority to the truth of divine revelation, but the puniſhments they inflict being nearer in view, work more ſtrongly on our fears, and are apt to ſway more with unthinking men than the diſtant puniſhments of another life. 'Tis with this deſign that his Majeſty has commanded us to put it into execution againſt all kinds of profaneneſs and immorality.

Under the head of profaneneſs is included blaſphemy, idle curſing and ſwearing, the taking God's name in vain, and the breach of the Sabbath.

Idle ſwearing is forbid by the third commandment, and is of all other ſins the moſt inexcuſable, becauſe 'tis the moſt unaccountable. What temptation of pleaſure or profit has any man to induce him to it? and can there be a greater affront to God Almighty, than to invoke his name on every trifling occaſion? beſides, an habit of profane ſwearing, by degrees leſſens our awe and regard for oaths on more ſolemn and neceſſary occaſions, and leads men inſenſibly to wilful and corrupt perjury; and when we have loſt all reſpect for the obligation of oaths, there is an end of all our courts of judicature; we have no other way to judge of right or wrong, truth or falſhood, nor any ſecurity left for our lives and property, when the reverence for that ſolemn appeal to Almighty God is once extinguiſh'd in our minds.

The breach of the Sabbath is forbidden by the law of God, and puniſh'd with ſevere penalties by our laws. It has been the peculiar honour of our government, that the obſervation of the ſabbath has been more ſtrictly enjoin'd by our laws than by any other chriſtian community whatſoever; and 'tis great pity that ſuch excellent laws ſhould loſe their edge for want of a vigorous execution.

Among many other immoralities which are too frequent among us, drunkenneſs, for this laſt age, ſeems to have been the prevailing vice of the Britiſh, and has juſtly render'd us the ſcorn and reproach of all our neighbours, who pretend to more civility and politeneſs of manners. This vice, in its own nature, carries ſo much brutality with it, is ſo notoriouſly contrary to the laws of God and man, is ſo ſcandalous to the profeſſion of chriſtianity, and ſo unworthy of a rational creature, that the bare naming it is expoſing it to the abhorrence of all good men, and it needs no aggravations to make it blacker.

There are other kinds of vice and immoralities, which, for brevity ſake, I ſhall omit; and content myſelf to tell you, that it becomes us all, in our ſeveral ſtations, to ſecond the pious intentions of the King, to ſet our helping hand towards reforming the manners of the people, and reſtoring them to their ancient ſobriety and virtue.

One wou'd think this were no hard taſk to perform, if men wou'd but conſider,

ſider, that 'tis not only our duty but our intereſt to be virtuous; among a thouſand advantages that chriſtianity has, above all other religions, this is none of the leaſt, that it has united our intereſt and our duty together. Would not a wiſe man be chaſte for the ſake of health, honeſt for the ſake of profit, temperate for the ſake of pleaſure, and all three for the ſake of fame? for vice was never yet ſo triumphant as to be in greater reputation than virtue. The moſt immoral men ſtudy to be thought virtuous, which is a ſecret compliment that vice will always pay to virtue.

Theſe conſiderations, together with the innumerable miſchiefs and inconveniences which attend a vicious courſe of life, ought in reaſon to reclaim men from theſe unmanly exceſſes. I am ſure there are other conſiderations which ought to excite all good men to make a ſtand againſt that torrent of corruption which begins to threaten us; for beſides its ill effects on private men, it never fails to have a fatal influence on the peace, the ſafety, and liberties of a nation, where 'tis ſuffer'd to prevail univerſally.

A general corruption of manners, is not only the certain ſymptom and preſage that a nation is ripe for ruin, but is the natural cauſe and principle of the decay and deſtruction of all governments: when debauchery has infected the manners of a nation, it of courſe extinguiſhes all public ſpirit and love of their country, it debaſes the natural courage and bravery of the common people; and in the gentry it deſtroys that emulation of glory which is the root of noble actions. Men who are abandon'd over to theſe brutal pleaſures, have nothing in view but their private intereſt; they loſe the ambition of doing well and the ſhame of doing ill, and contempt of public fame always begets a contempt of public virtue: this will create a neglect of their laws and orders, will produce faction in the ſtate, treachery in their counſels, cowardice and ill diſcipline in their armies, and expoſe them to be an eaſy prey to the firſt invader.

But I thank God our caſe is not ſo deſperate, we have every thing to hope for from the excellent example of our King, and from the united endeavours of many publick-ſpirited perſons, who have form'd themſelves into ſocieties for the more vigorous execution of the laws againſt profaneneſs and debauchery; they have ſucceſsfully attack'd this growing evil in its head quarters, the city of London, and have held it at bay for ſome time. 'Tis to be hoped their example will ſpread farther, and in the end maſter all oppoſition.

One of the greateſt obſtacles, in my opinion, to the reformation of manners, is, that too many men place all virtue and religion in warmly adhering to the intereſt of this or that particular ſect or party: as if a fiery zeal for the church, or the meeting-houſe, could atone for lewdneſs and debauchery; or as if vicious and immoral men cou'd be of any common church or community. Men muſt be good heathens before they pretend to be good chriſtians.

After the ſervice we owe to Almighty God, with which nothing ought to come in competition, the next duty we owe is to our King, our country, and our government; and for the preſervation of all theſe, I muſt recommend to you to inquire into all treaſons and miſpriſions of treaſon.

The perſons of our princes have been always held ſacred by our laws; and all attempts made upon their lives, or to raiſe rebellions, or levy war againſt them, nay the bare intention of doing it, of manifeſting it by an overt-act, is made treaſon by our conſtitution, and puniſh'd with death and forfeiture of eſtate: and if ever the people of Britain had reaſon to be careful and ſolicitous for the life of their prince, 'tis now in this juncture, when the welfare, the repoſe, and the ſafety, of our country ſo entirely depend on the life of the King. We enjoy, under his happy reign, all the bleſſings that a ſovereign can beſtow

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on ſubjects, and want nothing to complete our felicity but thankful hearts to acknowledge it: by his wiſe conduct and counſels we have peace at home and victory abroad; juſtice is duly and impartially adminiſter'd, vice and debauchery are diſcourag'd, and virtue and merit rewarded; the true intereſt of the nation is ſteadily purſued, and the great fences of our freedom and religion inviolably maintain'd; and all farther ſecurities for the preſervation of both are cheerfully granted. Above all, the eſtabliſhed church is in no danger; and what adds extremely to the glory of his Majeſty's government, he ſcorns to be the head of a ſect or party, and King only of one part of his people; but reſolves to be the common father of them all, and to extend the bleſſings of his reign to all his ſubjects, without diſtinction: he has no other views but to make all eaſy and happy, to unite their hearts and intereſt, and render them as well affected to one another as all ought to be to him. It muſt be confeſs'd, that our payments to the publick are high and heavy; but no wiſe man will repine at them, when he reflects that the vaſt expences of the war render them unavoidable; and never was any war undertaken upon more juſt and neceſſary reaſons: we are not contending for points of honour, for the right of the flag, or the dominion of the narrow ſeas: on the French ſide 'tis a war for lawleſs power and univerſal anarchy; on ours 'tis a defence of our religion, liberty, and property; the only things worth living for, and the only things worth dying for. We are diſputing whether we ſhall be Frenchmen or Engliſhmen, freemen or ſlaves; and did ever any nation draw their ſwords in a nobler or juſter quarrel?

In the next place, we are defending the civil rights, the liberty and property of Britain. The cauſe of liberty is too good to need any advocate; it would be a jeſt to ſearch for arguments to convince Engliſhmen, that 'tis their intereſt to live free and independent, and to be rather govern'd by known laws than the luſts and paſſions of a private will. 'Twould be equally ridiculous to aſk a Britiſh freeholder, whether he does not think the laws of Britain a better ſecurity for his property, than ſtanding armies and lawleſs power, which is the French government.

Thus you ſee that religion, liberty and property, are the invaluable Bleſſings we are now contending for, which our anceſtors convey'd down to us; and 'tis our duty to tranſmit them entire to our poſterity. 'Tis as clear as the ſun, that if France prevails in this war all theſe are loſt, and that we ſhall be dragoon'd into idolatry, ſlavery, and wooden ſhoes; 'tis the duty of every Engliſhman, who lays the honour and intereſt of his country to heart, to contribute cheerfully to the public aids, in order to prevent the miſeries we are threatened with, that the next age may have no reaſon to reproach us that we loſt our freedom, and became a province to France, by grudging to pay two or three taxes. There are many other motives to encourage us to pay our taxes with alacrity, as, that we live in peace and quiet, while the beſt countries in Europe are the ſeat of war, laid waſte with fire and ſword, and equally ruin'd by friends and foes: the glory of repelling the objects of France is reſerv'd by Heaven to reward the virtue and piety of our King; and that all the ineſtimable bleſſings we enjoy under his reign will be entail'd down to future ages, under a laſting ſucceſſion of proteſtant princes. Nothing is ſo likely, in all human probability, to blaſt all our hopes, and defeat the great ends we have in view, as our own fatal diviſions and animoſities; 'tis ſtrange that the common ties of our religion, and our common intereſt and danger, cannot unite us againſt our common enemies; 'tis the duty of all to ſacrifice their private quarrels and contentions to the public ſafety of the kingdom;

dom; we ſhould conſider that we are all members of the ſame ſociety, ſubjects of the ſame King, and ſervants of the ſame God.

FOR THE SCOTS MAGAZINE.

THE PURSUITS OF HAPPINESS.

A VISION.

WHILE thinking on the miſeries to which human life is liable, I fell into a deep ſleep.

I thought I was in a pleaſant country, and before me an exceeding high hill, the top of which ſeemed to be very delightful, and adorned with every thing that bounteous nature could beſtow. In the center of it ſtood a temple, which, for grandeur and elegance, exceeded all deſcription.

Around the bottom of this hill ſtrayed an innumerable multitude, all of them deſiring to arrive at its ſummit; to whom a great many different perſons offered themſelves as guides, though each pretended to take a different road. Amongſt theſe I obſerved one ſtrutting with a haughty mein, and ſeemingly important air; another was of an anxious look and cautious pace, who had ſeveral bags under his arm, which he ſeemed to fill with gold. In a road juſt oppoſite to him was another of a quite contrary aſpect; for he had a thoughtleſs air, a frolickſome geſture, and was perpetually throwing away to ſome phantoms about him (moſt of which were in ſhape of women) what the other ſeemed ſo eager in amaſſing. There was likewiſe another, with an enormous belly, a blotted red face, and gouty legs, ſtraddling along with great appearance of content.

Being in a doubt what road to take, and which of theſe guides to follow, I obſerved a venerable old man coming towards me, whoſe name I afterwards knew to be Reflexion. He aſked me if it was not the delightful top of yonder hill that I deſired to arrive at. I anſwered that it was, but knew not whom to follow. Your wiſh, ſaid he, is laudable; for the hill is called Happineſs, where none who betake themſelves to theſe falſe guides ſhall ever arrive; ſee what becomes of their followers. (Upon that he ſtroked my eyes with his Magic Wand, which ſtrengthened and cleared my ſight exceedingly.) He whom you ſee ſtrutting with that haughty mien, is called Ambition, he has got a croud to follow him. The road he takes is up that ſlippery rock, on which ſcarce any can advance a ſtep; not ſo much from the difficulty of the aſcent, as from every one endeavouring to pull his neighbour down. Some there are who have advanced a good way, but ſee how faſt they come tumbling down, like that Stone which the Poets repreſent *Syſiphus* to be continually rolling. Many of theſe are ſo ſtunned with the fall, that they never again return to their right ſenſes; and even the few, who with difficulty ſtand higheſt, you may eaſily perceive, that height on which they ſtand is farther removed from Happineſs, than where they firſt ſet out.

That youth with the careleſs air and frolickſome geſture is called Prodigality, and theſe phantoms who attend him (and to whom he is ſo liberal) are called the Pleaſures. His followers are at firſt enchanted with the proſpect of walking through flowery meadows and delicious groves; but ſoon they find themſelves entangled in thorny roads and gloomy paths, or plunged into gulfs, from whence very few are ever able to eſcape.

That other with the anxious look, cautious pace, and bags under his arm, is called Avarice. Although his followers ſet out under his conduct with a deſign to arrive at Happineſs, yet they are ſoon bewitched with that metal (which he ſeems ſo eager in amaſſing) and forget that there is any other happineſs than in the enjoyment of it.

But how comes it, ſaid I, that any are ſo infatuated as to follow that other

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monſter there. His name, ſaid he, is called Luxury, and Sloth is his perpetual friend. You will not be ſurpriſed why mortals follow him, if you obſerve theſe phantoms, who are ſo buſy about the foot of the hill, Error and Ignorance. Theſe lay hold on fooliſh men, and give them an intoxicating draught, which darkens the judgment, and caſts a miſt before their eyes, ſo that they ſee not the deformity of that object. But the moſt part of them, before they have advanced far in his train, are ſeized and carried away by that croud of frightful ſpectres, whom you ſee hovering round him, which are called Diſeaſes.

But, ſaid I, are any of theſe mortals, who follow ſuch falſe guides, ever ſenſible of their miſtake? Some there are, ſaid he, who follow Ambition or Prodigality, who ſee their own folly, and the inſufficiency of their guides, and come to me; but the followers of Avarice and Luxury ſeldom or never. Some are brought to me by that friend you ſee there with an Iron Whip, who is called Remorſe. I then give them to drink of this cup, which clears their judgment, and diſpels the miſt from before their eyes; ſo that they clearly ſee their former folly and deformity; it is called Repentance. But, continued he, if you are deſirous of eſcaping all theſe evils, and arriving at yonder delightful hill, behold that heavenly form, who walks along with ſo much majeſty and compoſure; ſhe is the only ſure guide to happineſs, her name is called Wiſdom. But ſhould I ever deviate from her paths (ſaid I) how can I recover again, and be admitted into her train? Wiſdom, ſaid he, is compaſſionate to the infirmities of men, and often ſends me to their relief. O heavenly monitor (ſaid I) be not thou therefore wanting in my need, then ſhall I join her followers with great joy. Having thus ſaid, I immediately went and joined myſelf to a few, who were ſetting out under her conduct.

Before we began our journey, ſhe gave each of us a ſet of armour, that had been formed and finiſhed for the uſe of mankind, by her miniſtring Genii and perpetual attendants, Hope, Fortitude, Patience, and Perſeverance. The road at firſt was very ſteep and rugged, and ſeemed to be very little frequented. We were likewiſe frequently attacked by a great number of phantoms from their different ambuſcades, againſt whom our armour proved of ſignal ſervice. Amongſt theſe were Anger, Malice, Envy, Revenge, &c. There was likewiſe one in a female ſhape who did us a great deal of miſchief, ſhe was called Fortune. Sometimes ſhe would promiſe us great rewards to turn out of our road, and would threaten us with the greateſt miſchief if we perſiſted. Sometimes ſhe would ſcatter about her favours careleſsly, which by ſome were taken up, who being incumbered by their weight, commonly fell down to the foot of the hill, or were left behind.

Wiſdom was all this time encouraging us to reſiſt our enemies, and counſelling us to diſpiſe the gifts of Fortune, and not to be afraid of all her threats. —As we advanced, the road turned ſenſibly better, and our adverſaries appeared ſeldomer; and now we began to travel through a delightful country, where all nature ſeemed gay and ſmiling.—But although we had advanced a great way up the hill, and ſaw the reſt of mankind far below us wandering in miſtaken paths, yet we were far from attaining our end; for lo! there preſented an impaſſable chaſm betwixt us and the top of the hill, at which being very much concerned, I heard a voice ſay, O mortals! it is in vain for you to think of arriving at Happineſs in the preſent life; but ſuch as have followed the paths of Wiſdom, when death diſſolves their mortal frames, then will the ſoul fly over that chaſm, and enter into this happy place.

Immediately I obſerved Time flying along with incredible ſwiftneſs. All nature ſeemed to decay as he paſſed; the countenances of men were altered, their eyes turned hollow, their foreheads wrinkled,

wrinkled, their hair turned grey and fell off.

After him followed another ſpectre, whoſe name I knew to be Death: In one hand he held a dart, the other was of lead; and advancing towards me touched me with his cold hand, at which I awoke. A. R.

ON THE DIET OF THE COMMON PEOPLE.

THE large portion of animal food that enters into the diet of the people of this country, Dr Buchan ſays, is prejudicial to their health, and proves a conſiderable impediment to their mental exertions. It excites an intolerable thirſt, which being generally allayed by ſtrong beer and other inebriating liquors, adds conſiderably to the miſchief. The French, and other inhabitants of the continent, who feed principally upon ſoups, thickened with vegetables, and in which fleſh bears but a ſmall proportion, are, in general, more healthy; particularly, they bear warm climates better than the Engliſh. Bread, of which we conſume, he ſays, greatly too much, both on the ſcore of œconomy and health, becomes ſtill more hurtful, from our prejudice in favour of that made of the fineſt flour. The fineſt flour approaches the neareſt to ſtarch, which, though it may occaſionally prove a good medicine, makes bad bread. The author combates ſucceſsfully the opinion, that the bread that is moſt nutritive muſt neceſſarily be the beſt. If the whole of what we take into the ſtomach were ſoluble, we ſhould be ſtarved. It is neceſſary there ſhould be ſome part indigeſtible, or fæcal, to retain the finer part, and retard its paſſage through the inteſtines, that it may be abſorbed by the lacteals.—But there are other objections to the common uſe of the fineſt flour. The temptation for adulterating it, both by the miller and baker, is ſo great, that he thinks it is rarely obtained without a mixture of lime, chalk, alum, or ſome other extraneous body. Houſehold bread, which is made by grinding down the whole of the grain, and only ſeparating the coarſe bran, is the moſt wholeſome.

This is the kind of bread that was recommended during the late ſcarcity. But, although it was eaten in moſt of the opulent families in the kingdom, their example ſeemed to have little influence upon the poor, who quitted it as ſoon as a finer ſort could be procured. The bakers never heartily encouraged the conſumption of it; whether their profits were ſmaller, or they could not ſo readily adulterate it, is not eaſy to determine. It is however to be regretted, that the families who uſed it at that time, did not continue it. Perſeverance on their part, after the neceſſity ceaſed, would have ſhewn the people that they were ſincere in their recommendation of it. By quitting it, and returning to the uſe of the pureſt wheat bread, they gave a ſanction to the prejudice the poor had conceived againſt it. The poor, particularly in the metropolis, and other large places, will never bear to ſee a ſuperior kind of bread ſet apart, as it were, for the opulent. Perhaps it might be wiſe to prohibit the making large loaves with fine flour, and to confine the uſe of it to rolls, French bricks, &c. As the bakers get a larger profit upon them than on quartern and other loaves, the additional quantity of them that would be conſumed, might enable them to make the houſhold bread without diminiſhing their preſent gains.

Bread made of different kinds of grain, is better than what is made of flour only. Two parts of wheat flour, and one of rye, makes excellent bread. As a ſubſtitute for bread, the author recommends boiled grain and roots, peaſe, beans, barley, oats, potatoes, parſnips, &c. The people of England, he obſerves, are but little accuſtomed to the uſe of boiled grain, though, in many countries it is eaten as a luxury. Boiled barley is a great favourite with the Dutch, who, in general, are both healthy and robuſt. It is eaten with milk,

milk, butter, or molaſſes. It is one of the beſt ingredients in ſoups, thickening it better than any other grain. Oatmeal, made into haſty-pudding, and eaten with milk, is very nouriſhing. The peaſants, in many parts of Britain, make two meals a day of it, and their children almoſt wholly ſubſiſt upon it; and it is well known, he adds, that young and old, who are thus fed, are healthy and robuſt. The potatoe is by far the moſt productive, ſalubrious, and nouriſhing, among the eſculent roots; it is only inferior in the latter quality to corn. The author reprobates the cuſtom of making bread with potatoes mixed with flour; it is marring both. Simple boiling, or roaſting, is all that is required to make them a proper ſubſtitute for bread. Stewed with mutton, they make a nouriſhing and pleaſing diet; but they ſhould be boiled firſt, and the water thrown away, as it contains ſomething of a deleterious quality.

By Dr Buchan.

FOR THE SCOTS MAGAZINE.

SIR, IF the following Hiſtorical and Medical obſervations on Sugar, meet your approbation, pleaſe give them a place. Yours, &c. K.

HISTORICAL AND MEDICAL OBSERVATIONS ON SUGAR.

SUGAR was originally the Product of the Eaſt Indies, though now it grows plentifully in the Weſt Indies, particularly in Jamaica, Martinico, Hiſpaniola, Barbadoes, and ſome other iſlands in thoſe Seas.——It is an agreeable juice, expreſſed by an engine from a ſort of canes or reeds: And it is very certain, that if the Ancients knew any thing of theſe canes and their juice, they were entirely ignorant of the modern art of condenſing, hardening, and whitening it.——It was called Spodium by the Arabs, Tabaxir by the Perſians, and Mambu by the Indians. And Sulmaſius allows the Arabs to have known and practiſed this art, as now continued, at leaſt 800 Years ago.

However this be, the generality of authors agree, that the Sugar of the ancients was more wholeſome, than that made in our days; for that it was made only of the fineſt and matureſt parts, which made themſelves a paſſage, and were condenſed in the air.

And it is certain, that our fore-fathers in Great Britain were entire ſtrangers to this pleaſing and valuable plant, till the great Columbus brought it to them from his new diſcoveries in America.

At its firſt importation, the preference was given to Madeira and Canary-Sugar: but now we eſteem that beſt, which grows and is manufactured in Jamaica and Barbadoes; though ſome like the Liſbon or Braſil Sugar before them all; for though it be not ſo white, it is fatter and more oily.

Sugar ſucceeded the uſe of *Honey* ſo effectually, that the laſt is almoſt forgot, which was diſagreeable to cholerick conſtitutions, flatulent bodies, lean perſons, and to ſuch as are ſubject to inflammations of the *Viſcera*: Though it muſt be allowed more agreeable to the phlegmatick, aged, cold, or moiſt conſtitutions; becauſe it is more healing, detergent, diuretic, and opening.

The beſt ſugar is ſolid, light, and exceeding white and ſweet, glittering like ſnow, hard and not ſpungy, melting quickly in water, *&c.* And as it is the eſſential ſalt of the reed or cane, prepared by repeated decoctions and clarifications, ſo its exceeding ſweetneſs ariſes from the intimate union of its ſalt and ſulphur.

The coarſer ſort is ſweeter than the finer; for, retaining more oil, it continues longer on the taſte: Becauſe if the oil be ſeparated from the ſalt neither of them is ſweet; but the ſalt is acid, and the firſt is inſipid: yet when both are united, and the ſalt

by penetrating the pores of the palate, make way for the oil to follow, they cauſe the ſweetneſs of the taſte.

It is found, from practice and many experiments, that the coarſer the Sugar, the more viſcuous it is. In its coarſe ſtate, the eſſential fat is more ſtrictly united to its oil, and viſcuous earth. Both which principles are divided and attenuated, or depreſſed to the bottom, or raiſed to the top in a ſcum by Lime-water, Lees, and Eggs, uſed in its ſundry decoctions and clarifications: And the oftener theſe are repeated, the finer it is.——Now this coarſe Sugar uſed moderately, is a good balſamic, and ſerviceable in ſheathing up ſharp humours, which irritate the Lungs and exite a troubling tickleſome cough. Yet double or treble refined Sugar, or white Candy, is moſt proper to incite, attenuate, break, and ſeparate a viſcuous groſs phlegm, that loads and ſtuffs the lungs, and to gently irritate the organs of reſpiration, to pump it up. Therefore white candy, and fine Sugar, is beſt in a cold, when the retained perſpirable matter is thrown upon the thoratick contents, to be from thence diſcharged.

This fine ſugar is equally ſerviceable in ſeveral viſcidities of the Blood, or too great ſerofity of the Juices, the ſolids being lax and ſluggiſh; becauſe in this caſe, its fine ſalts attenuate and prepare the firſt motion, circulation, and evacuation: And therefore it is alſo particularly beneficial to the aged, phlegmatic, and ſluggiſh, and to groſs-bodied children, if moderately uſed. Nor muſt it be forgot, that it agrees well with cold climates, foggy air, the winter ſeaſon, and rainy weather. And as it is an approved diuretic; it muſt never be forgot in all Gravelly caſes, in which it alway joins iſſue with *Green Tea*, and makes it more uſeful.

On the contrary, *coarſe Sugar* has its peculiar advantages, as it retains much of its oil; and its ſalts not being ſubtilized, nor having their ſharp *Spicula* unſheathed: but being more hid in the coarſe oil and viſcuous earth, ſo it affords much oil to the adipoſe veſſels, which, with the adheſion of its fine earthy parts to the ſides of veſſels, makes it fitter for thin, meagre, unhealthy, and hectically diſpoſed conſtitutions. It is therefore better ſuited to *Bohea* than *Green Tea*.

Again, fine ſugar is deſtructive of very choleric conſtitutions; for being too ſtimulating, it increaſes the motion of the fluids; and its ſalts wear the inſides of the veſſels, and dry the body. Therefore meagre people muſt be very cautious not to make too free with it: Nor ſhould they indulge themſelves with an exceſs of the coarſe ſort; for though its ſalts are not ſo naked and ſharp as to wear the veſſels with their ſolidity and number, yet it is too apt to turn acrid, and to ſour the Juices.

In fine, coarſe Sugar is denied to phlegmatic and bulky Bodies; becauſe it increaſes the oilyneſs and viſcidity of their juices, over lubricates and relaxes their ſolids, begets many and obſtinate obſtructions, which frequently terminate in cachexy: and as the great quantity of ſalt and lime in fine ſugar excites thirſt, drys the blood, and increaſes its motion, conſequently it ſhould be uſed very ſparingly in hot and dry weather, in hot countries, and in burning Fevers.

OBSERVATIONS AND EXPERIMENTS MADE TO DETERMINE THE POISONOUS QUALITIES OF AZOTE.

BY EAGLESFIELD SMITH, ESQ.

MEMBER OF THE SOCIETY FOR THE ENCOURAGEMENT OF ARTS, &c.

FROM the fatal conſequences which enſue to animals that breathe atmoſpheric air deprived of its oxigenous principle, or that receive into their ſtomachs thoſe ſub-

substances which contain it either as their base or as a principal ingredient (under some particular modification), it appears to me to be the destroying principle in all those poisons which kills the animal by throwing it into convulsions; and that it is the cause of the phenomena which take place in many of those diseases to which mankind are subject, or that it is the cause of the disease itself. The following Experiments will in some measure illustrate the foregoing hypothesis.

EXPERIMENT THE FIRST.

I took two mice; one I caused to be stung by a wasp, which was immediately thrown into convulsions, and expired in two minutes: into an incision made into the muscular substance of the other, I injected two drops of the nitrous acid; it seemed to operate exactly in the same manner as the sting of the wasp, and the animal expired immediately. On opening them, and endeavouring to stimulate the muscular substance of their hearts, I found it had in a great measure lost its irritability. Fontana observes, in his Book upon Poisons, that the nitrous acid applied to the muscular substance of a pigeon killed it immediately: Cavendish and Lavoisier have proved, by experiments, that the azote is the radical principle of the nitrous acid.

EXPERIMENT THE SECOND.

Having taken four frogs, I made incisions into the muscular substance of three of them: into one I injected two drops of a strong decoction of tobacco; into the second, I injected half a grain of opium in solution; the fourth I caused to be stung by an enraged wasp: the three first expired in the course of four minutes; the last in less than seven minutes. On opening them, I found the blood in the ventricles of the heart less florid than usual; and the muscular substance, on the application of *zinc and silver*, in a great measure to have lost its irritability. Berthollet has shewn, in a Memoir of the Academy at Paris, that 4000 parts of ammoniac, by decomposition, contains 807 parts of azote, and 193 of hydrogene. The salt of tartar thrown into the circulating system of a cat, in the small quantity of a quarter of a grain, kills like a stroke of lightning. Mr Hassenfratz has shewn by experiments, that azote enters largely into the composition of that substance.

EXPERIMENT THE THIRD.

I took four young puppies: into the jugular vein of one, I injected four drops of the decoction of white hellebore; into the second I injected four drops of the digitalis; into the third, I injected one grain of the salt of urine dissolved in water; the fourth I caused to be stung by two wasps: the first died almost instantaneously; the second and third in less than five minutes: the fourth recovered with great difficulty, and seemed to throw off the disease by foaming at the mouth.

EXPERIMENT THE FOURTH.

I caused a number of earth-worms to be stung by bees, ants, and other insects, which always killed them immediately; and seemed to act on them in the same manner as the decoction of the poisonous plants, the laurel, tobacco, opium, &c. This effect is astonishing in these animals, which, when cut into pieces with the knife, still retain their irritability for many hours, or even days.

All poisonous plants with which we are acquainted, seem to act in the same manner when injected into the circulating system of animals; yet, from the nature and construction of the stomach of some animals, they are eaten with impunity: goats will grow fat upon euphorbium, and swine upon henbane, &c. The Abbé Fontana has shewn by his experiments, that the poison of the Ticunas, supposed to be a vegetable substance, may be taken into the stomach, to the quantity of some grains, without hurt; yet the smallest quantity taken into the circulating system is instantaneous death. With this poison, the inhabitants of the banks of the river Amazons are said to poison their arrows. Not only the inspissated juice of poisonous

ous plants is used by savage nations to poison their arrows and darts, but it is known that putrid flesh is used for the same purpose, and from the same principle, even to this day. The Athenians used the water hemlock to poison their state criminals: the executioner desired Socrates not to talk so much to his friends, as it would prevent the poison from operating as it should do. (See Petit's Miscellaneous Observations.) Phocion, finding that the executioner had not enough of poison, gave him money to buy more, observing, facetiously, that the Athenians were obliged even to pay for their death. (See Plutarch's Lives.) The celebrated poisonous tree of Java, called in the Malayan tongue, "Bohun Upas," by giving out this destructive principle in the gaseous state, may prove fatal to vegetation, or to animals which come too near it. Although I believe the terrible accounts of this tree have been much exaggerated by travellers (See a paper in the Batavian Society at Rotterdam, by Dr Holst; wherein he endeavours to confute a very curious account of the Bohun Upas, by Foërch); yet this is in some degree the effect of poisonous plants with which we are better acquainted; not only preventing vegetation, but proving fatal to animals which happen to fall asleep under their shade. The sensitive plant seems evidently affected when brought near some of these plants, as also with the fumes of tobacco, and the volatil alkali. The juice of the Upas serves, when inspissated, to poison the arrows of the natives where it grows; but it is a most melancholy instrument in the hands of their tyrannic princes.

That some vegetables do not contain azote in their composition is certain; but it is very evident in others, as in many of the genus of *Tytradinamia* of Linnæus. This may be felt by their very pungent quality, as well as from their entering so easily into a state of putrefactive fermentation, and giving out large quantities of azote, either by itself or united with hydrogene in the gaseous form, as may be felt by the eyes and nose. In the vegetable form we use azote daily, either through pleasure or from necessity. In cold climates, tobacco is now universal, either taken into the stomach or applied to the olfactory nerves. Opium is very general in the warm countries of the East: the Turks take it, to the quantity of two drams at a time, without any inconvenience: the porters at Surat (See Grosse) take it to the quantity of an ounce at a time, and they find it increase their strength, and assists them to go through more labour: it is allowed plentifully to the soldiery, and it is said to inspire them with a furious and undaunted courage. But to those who accustom themselves to take it (first perhaps through pleasure; for, as if by some heavenly magic, it is found to lull the senses into a most pleasing forgetfulness of all our cares, and to assuage the most excruciating pains which affect the human body, and here it is a blessing to mankind) for any length of time, they are sure to experience its baneful effects: from time to time they are seized with a most dejected languor both of body and mind, until the usual and welcome dose is repeated: their constitutions become emaciated, and have every appearance of a premature and decrepid old age, and often sink under the first shock of disease. We see the azote daily used as a stimulus in cases of suspended animation: it is applied in a concrete form to the nose, in the form of smoke to the intestines, and sinapisms to the soles of the feet, &c. It is found to act differently on different constitutions; and, in the same constitution, when in health and when under disease: I have seen a child thrown into most violent convulsions by taking only two drops of laudanum; and a man, after one grain of digitalis, has scarcely recovered. This difference in the operation of poisons may depend on the different degrees of irritability in the different constitutions. From the difficulty of discovering the constituent principles of animal and vegetable poi-

son

ſons by chemical decompoſition, the foregoing hypotheſis may be found erroneous; yet, from the uniformity of nature, from the analogy in the action of theſe ſubſtances on the human body when taken into the circulating ſyſtem, and from the analogy the action of theſe ſubſtances bear with the azote in the pureſt and moſt ſimple taſte the Chemiſt can prepare it, we may venture to conclude that it is the deſtroying principle in all thoſe poiſons which deſtroys the animal life by throwing it into convulſions; and that the exiſtence of this principle in ſubſtances where it cannot be aſcertained by chemical analyſis, may in a great meaſure be determined by their operation on the animal conſtitution. From the violent elevation and depreſſion of the ribs in perſons who are juſt hung, and from the ſame taking place in the diaphragm in dogs, as if Nature was ſtruggling to throw off ſomething which is noxious to the conſtitution, it ſeems by its ſtimulus to be the remote cauſe of reſpiration. That the atmoſpheric air is ſtimulus itſelf, even when taken into the ſtomach, is proved by Mr Groſſe's Experiments above quoted. *Quære*, May not this be the cauſe of the difference which is found in the recovery of perſons after drowning, whether their lungs were inflated during the time they were under water? or if they had a ſenſe of their danger?

When the atmoſpheric air enters the lungs, it is ſoon deprived of its oxygene or vital principle, and is rendered thereby noxious to animals, and unfit to ſupport flame; it not only becomes a ſtimulus, but puts on the form of a moſt deadly poiſon: melancholy proofs of this have happened where numbers have been crowded into the holds of ſhips, and cloſed from the circulation of freſh air: in the Black Hole at Calcutta, there was a ſtriking inſtance of this. The effects of the wind called the Sirroc ſeems to be owing to a diminution of the empyreal air in the atmoſphere. In ſome parts of Sicily the inhabitants are confined to their houſes for four or five days together, to avoid a contact with this wind. Thoſe Europeans who have felt it deſcribe it as bringing on ſuch a languor and dejection of ſpirits as is almoſt inſupportable. (See Brydone's Tour.)

The fatal effects which daily occur to perſons from going into vaults, caverns, wells, &c. which have been long ſhut up, proceeds from the ſame principle. The famous *Lago del Cani*, ſo often deſcribed by travellers, is ſurely no more than throwing the animal into it; which, by the ſudden ſhock it gives, rouſes nature to throw off the effects of this air which it had taken into its conſtitution in the cave; and I make no doubt but one of our Engliſh lakes would do as well, had we an equal opportunity of applying it.

The violent pains which take place in the beginning of fever, the ſpaſmodic contraction over the whole body, and the great ſenſation of cold ſucceeded by a burning heat, ſeems to indicate this ſubſtance for a primary cauſe: we find the plague too often ariſing in thoſe warm countries, and where the rivers, after ſubſiding, leave vaſt quantities of animal and vegetable ſubſtances to putrify, and give out this *mephitis*, which, not being diſperſed by the winds, fits the atmoſphere to continue this diſeaſe whenever it begins, or perhaps begets the diſeaſe itſelf. Growing vegetables are, during the day-time, found to purify the atmoſphere, eſpecially in the ſun (See Ingenhauzen's Experiments); by giving out empyreal air in great quantities during the night-time, perhaps they abſorb it, as many tender people cannot ſleep with them in their bed-rooms. We have had inſtances of whole iſlands becoming uninhabitable, from the cutting down of the wood: the Dutch, who wanted to enhance the price of cloves in the Eaſt Indies, cut down all the clove trees in the iſland of Ternati, and the place became almoſt uninhabitable, from its unhealthineſs. From the ſame principle,

plagues

plagues have followed after great battles, and where the slain have remained unburied: the plague is never known to continue long, but under some particular constitution of the atmosphere; and this must have been the case when it rose in the kingdom of Cathay as from the ground, in the form of a mineral exhalation, and continued its horrible desolation through all Europe. The porters who were employed in opening the bale goods in the Lazaretto at Marseilles were killed by the infection of the plague as from a stroke of lightning. The plague terminates like the small-pox, the matter being thrown out upon the skin; while in other fevers it is thrown out in large phlegmons in various parts of the body. We have no way of accounting for why the small-pox should often be endemic, and of a more malignant nature at one time than at other times, unless by supposing the constitution of the air to have the power of altering the habit of body, so as to render it more liable to receive the infection, and consequently less able to throw it off; therefore, children should be inoculated on the first appearance of the disease, or before their constitutions have suffered from the state of the atmosphere.

The azote, under some particular modification, may be the cause of hydrophobia in dogs: they are ever fond of eating, and haunting about places where there are animal substances in a state of putrefaction. Dogs are found to perspire little or not at all by the skin; therefore the disease, not being able to terminate itself that way, is carried to the salivary glands, and inflames them to such a degree of irritability, that when the animal, parched up with thirst, attempts to drink, by the irritation of the water it is thrown into violent convulsions; and, from the remembrance of the acute pain, it ever after turns from it with horror: *hence the disease takes its name.* The animal, as if actuated by nature, sets out a-running, and generally continues till it drops down dead, before the disease is thrown off by the glands or other evacuation.

If the sting of the tarantula was ever cured by music, it was certainly by the music exciting the person to get up and dance till he was covered with sweet. Under the same principle, some modification of this substance may constitute the *venereal virus*.

This subject being sufficiently known might assist us in finding out by experiment some remedy in nature, which, by combining with or decomposing this substance in whatever state or combination it should find it in; and thereby render it less destructive to life. We know that vinegar, taken in the stomach after opium, in a great measure destroys its effects: the vitriolic acid mixed with the poison of serpents renders it much less dangerous (See Fontana): the thieves' vinegar was found infallible in preventing the plague to certain persons who used it at Marseilles, and thereby were enabled to go about and plunder the houses of the inhabitants; but were pardoned on discovering by what means they avoided the infection; it was therefore called thieves' vinegar.

Vinegar is thought a preventive to the infection in all fevers; and is much used in hospitals and the holds of ships, where there is danger of the infection spreading. When the habit is emaciated after long voyages, bad food, or breathing confined air, vegetable acids are found the only certain remedy we know of; and a very few days on shore after a long voyage, never fails to restore the ship's crew to their pristine vigour. Acids themselves, as a topical application, may be employed where persons have been stung by venomous animals: it is common in the country for persons who have been stung by bees, wasps, or even nettles, to rub the parts immediately with the leaves of sorrel or other acid vegetable; and I have known vinegar applied to gonorrhea and chancres with good effect.

In

the hot countries, where people are daily bit by ſerpents and other poiſonous inſects, they rub the part immediately with ſome acid vegetable; but the moſt effectual remedy ſeems to be ſucking the part with their mouths, as the poiſon only is dangerous when carried into the circulating ſyſtem: the *Marii* and *Pſylli*, brought to Rome from Africa, were famous for that kind of remedy.

It is a curious remark, that ſerpents *inſpire*, but are not ſeen to *expire*; perhaps the phlogiſtigated air, which ſhould be thrown out by the trahea, ſerves in them to form the poiſon in thoſe which are mortal from the bite; and may ſerve to form that horrible fœtor in thoſe which are not poiſonous by the bite: and to this we may aſcribe that faſcinating power ſo curiouſly deſcribed by travellers, and which ſerves the animal to take its prey, or to defend itſelf: the devoted animal, as affected by ſome convulſive ſtupor, unable to extricate itſelf, grows weaker and weaker, till it at loſt drops into the extended jaws of its deſtroyer. Putrefaction is the immediate and common effect of the bite of the more dreadful ſerpents, the perſon dies in moſt violent convulſions, ſucceeded by a total loſs of irritability. Mr Williams, in a very ingenious paper in the Aſiatic Reſearches, recommends (as in caſes of ſuſpended animation before-mentioned) every ſtimulus that can rouſe nature to ſtruggle with the diſeaſe, and that vol. alk. was a moſt efficacious application: according to Wolfe and Mead, it helps to throw off the effects of laurel water, and is efficacious even in hydrophobia.

Mr Bruce and Savary, in their accounts of Egypt, deſcribe a common practice of charming ſerpents, which is by rubbing their naked arms and boſoms with ſome ſort of vegetable; and to the aſtoniſhment of travellers, they apply them to their ſkin in every manner with impunity, and make a living by the practice (See account of Cerafles of Linnæus, Edinb. Encyclopedia, the bite of which is attended with immediate putrefaction). The poiſonous wind, called Samiel by Chardin which is inſtantaneous death, immediately produces putrefaction in the animal; and much reſembles ſome ſymptoms of the yellow fever, which evidently ſhewed the effect of this ſubſtance when taken into the ſyſtem.

From the expence, the tedioufneſs and difficulties ariſing from the great nicety required in chemical experiments, and from the preſent infancy of the ſcience, this ſubject would take much labour and patience fairly to inveſtigate: from the collateral inferencees, from the difficulties in working againſt old and popular prejudices, few people would undertake ſo great labour: but it certainly would be a great ſtep towards the claſſing diſeaſes, and rendering the cure more ſimple; for no ſcience will ever make any great progreſs in the world but in proportion as it is rendered leſs intricate. A few years ago, chemiſtry was ſcarce known; but by the labour of the late ingenious French chemiſts, in forming a baſis for the ſtudy of that ſcience, it is now become eaſy, faſhionable, and delightful.

AN ACCOUNT OF THE CITY OF VENICE.

AND OF ITS LATE ARISTOCRATIC GOVERNMENT.

FROM Padua, we took boat and went upon the Brenta; the two arms of which, that join again at ſome miles diſtance, make the city nearly an iſland. The paſſage by water to Venice is performed in half a day. On each bank of the ſtream there are many country ſeats, of the principal Venetians; which render the paſſage pleaſant: but I do not find in them thoſe ſuperior charms which ſome travellers have deſcribed. The boat is drawn by a horſe; for the river, by the aid of four ſluices, is rendered as flat as a canal. At the diſtance

diſtance of five Italian miles from Venice, you come to the open ſea: where you behold the magnificent city ſeeming to ſwim and riſing out of the waters. The proſpect is grand.

The appearance of the city, when paſſing through the canals, is ſtill more ſingular. The houſes ſtand upon piles, over which the waves flow. Some rows of houſes are ſeparated by a quay, from the canals: or rather from the ſmall arms of the ſea, which form the iſlands. Others ſtand immediately in the water, that waſhes the ſtone ſteps up which you aſcend from the canals to the houſes. Theſe houſes have back doors, into narrow ſtreets: by which, aided by bridges, all parts of the city are acceſſible to foot paſſengers. The canals are covered with gondole, each of which is rowed by a man. Theſe gondole muſt all be black; and in the middle they have each a ſmall canopy, which muſt not be covered with any other ſtuff but black cloth. Hence they have a gloomy appearance. Being long and ſmall, they ſkim lightly along in ſo rapid a manner that, though cautiouſly managed, at firſt they terrify ſtrangers. Like as in Naples the coaches throng upon each other, and preſs upon the crowded people in full trot, ſo do the light gondole ſhoot like an arrow through the throng of other gondole, without running foul of each other.

Venice cannot boaſt of that remote antiquity which is claimed by many of her ſiſter cities; though the gentilitious name is loſt in the ancient annals of hiſtory. Antiquarians derive the Heneti from the Trojans: who, after the deſtruction of their city, they retired with Antenor to theſe countries. The word *Heneti* was changed into the word *Veneti*: after the manner in which the ancient Italians uſually pronounced Greek words. Spina, and Hadria, or Adria, were the moſt ancient towns of this country. Spina lay on the left ſide of the Po. Hadria is at preſent a ſmall place, known by the name of Adria.

In the year 452, when Attila deſtroyed the mighty Aquileia, which is now a little town on the eaſtern coaſt, and every where ſpread the terror of his name, the people of Aquileia and other inhabitants of theſe countries fled to the marſhes, and founded Venice. They erected a free ſtate; which remained four hundred years in ſafety becauſe of its inſignificance, and afterward becauſe of its increaſing power. During four hundred years they continued to elect conſuls, and tribunes: but finding them abuſe their power, they aſked permiſſion of the emperor Leo to appoint a duke.

Weary of the proceedings of their dukes, in the year 1172, they limited this dignity and named a council of ten nobles, which was intended as a conterpoiſe to the power of the duke. In the year 1296, the power of this council was ſtill farther increaſed. The duke, or doge, Gradenigo, with peculiar dignity, willingly renounced privileges which appeared to him incompatible with freedom.

In the middle ages, Venice attained that ſummit of grandeur which excited the jealouſy of other nations. The trade of this republic extended over the three quarters of the old world. It made conqueſts, but always for the increaſe and ſecurity of commerce. The ſenate at all times continued firm in the purſuit of their prudent ſyſtem: by which the conſtitution of Venice acquired a ſtability, which has been maintained amid all the political and moral revolutions of Europe. It has loſt Cyprus, Candia, and the Morea. The diſcovery of the paſſage round the Cape of Good Hope has opened the road to India and China to other nations: whereas formerly Venice alone was in poſſeſſion of the trade of the eaſt; which it carried on by means of the caravans of thoſe countries, and by bringing their merchandiſe over the Red Sea to Europe.

In thoſe ages, Germany was wealthy. Her cities ſupplied, not only the northern kingdoms, but France and

England likewiſe, with the commodities of the Levant. The alliance of the Hanſe towns, by traffic, made half Europe tributary to them: yet the Hanſe towns themſelves chiefly received their wealth from the ſuperabundance of Venice, and contributed to enrich this central mart of the known world.

In the beginning of the ſixteenth century, a league was formed at the inſtigation of pope Julius the ſecond, between the emperor, the kings of France and Naples, and the dukes of Savoy and Ferrara, for the ſubjugation of the republic. Venice it is true loſt ſeveral provinces, but reſiſted her puiſſant enemies with courage and caution: till this terrific league was diſſolved by the mutual miſtruſt of its chiefs.

Since the revolution of the year 1297 the great council has conſiſted of all the nobility of Venice that were of age: that is, of about fifteen hundred perſons; who at leaſt have the right to take their ſeat in the ſenate, whenever they pleaſe. The age of majority is twenty-five. Each male child of the five hundred and thirty families, who enjoy this privilege, muſt, at its birth, be regiſtered in what is called the Golden Book. The families have equal rights, and equal rank. The deſcendants of the twelve tribunes, who choſe the firſt doge, conſtitute the eleven principal families: for the twelfth is extinct. After theſe, the next in rank are the deſcendants of thoſe who were received into the great council in the year 1297; and the third order conſiſts of thoſe who purchaſed this right, for a hundred thouſand ducats, in times of public diſtreſs.

Excluſive of theſe, princes and kings themſelves are preſented with letters of nobility. The nobles of the provinces have no ſhare in the public affairs. The great council is the ſole ſovereign, and poſſeſſes the power of making laws. They aſſemble on Sundays and Saints' days: that the members of the colleges and courts of juſtice, who on other days are buſied by the affairs entruſted them, may be preſent.

This aſſembly includes in itſelf the three principle chambers. The firſt of theſe is called *La Signoria*; and conſiſts of the doge and ſix ſenators, who are his conſtant aſſiſtants. Each of theſe ſenators appertains to one of the ſix parts into which the city is divided. They may be called the tribunes of the people. To the ſignoria likewiſe appertain the ſix *Savi Grandi*, or chief ſages, who form the miniſtry; the three chiefs of the great criminal tribunal of the forty, which is called *La Quarantia*; the five *Savi di Terra Firma*, who ſuperintend the war department; and the five *Savi degli Ordini*, to whom all naval affairs are committed.

The ſecond chamber conſiſts of upwards of two hundred and fifty members. Theſe are the ſenate, who are likewiſe called *Il Conſiglio de i Pregadi*, the entire ſignoria, all the magiſtrates, the council of ten, ſixty ſelect ſenators, and ſixty other patricians, or nobles, who are called *Sotto Pregadi*. The laſt named hundred and twenty are elected every year. The power of determining reſides in the *Conſiglio de i Pregadi*: in which aſſembly the moſt momentous affairs are debated, and alliances are there concluded.

The third chamber conſiſts of ten perſons: *Il Conſiglio de i Dieci*. The power of this chamber is fearful to the nobility; againſt whom only it is directed. From its ſentence there is no appeal: of its actions it renders no account. Its authority is concentrated in three perſons: two of whom are named from the ten, and the third is appointed from the council of the doge. Theſe three ſtate-inquiſitors inſpire the whole nobility with terror. Their dreadful maxim is, *correre alla pena prima d' eſſaminar la colpa.*—Puniſh before you examine the guilty. By them the doge himſelf may be ſentenced to death. Many of the nobles are ſecretly cited to come before their tribunal; and many dif-

disappear without any man knowing what is become of them.

In the last century, Antonio Foscarini, a young senator, fell a sacrifice to this inquisition. His good qualities, his understanding, and the love the people bore him, excited the jealousy of these secret inspectors. He was summoned and put to death.

However the subtlety of modern philosophy, nay of Montesquieu himself, may palliate the ostracism of the Athenians, still it was a tyrannical and unwise law: unwise because it fettered every noble enterprise, and induced the chief citizens to court the favour of the people; and tyrannical because it was capricious. The just Aristides was its sacrifice. Pericles escaped it, not so much because persuasion sat on his lips, not from the thunder of his eloquence, but because he shewed himself culpably obsequious to the people.

But how much less can the state inquisition of Venice be justified! It is affirmed to be necessary, by the Venetians, for the safety of the public. Thirty years ago, its abolishment was taken into consideration by the great council; and by the great council it was confirmed. Unless it be asserted that it is necessary to overawe the power of the nobility, and unless this power can only be overawed by tyrannical caprice, and thus prevented from becoming the despot of the state, such a tribunal must in itself be unjust. It is a misconception of the first principles of morals and politics, to imagine that injustice can ever be necessary. The very end of every political institute is security against power. He must be a tyro in politics indeed who supposes that tyranny consists only in the abuse of monarchical power. Each constitution is despotic in which the sovereign, whether prince, senate, or people, is superior to the laws; and can act according to caprice. Despotic princes are easily induced to act absurdly; under their government states are constantly subject to change; and prosperity is casual, because each governs according to the versatilities of his own opinions. Now almost every prince, being desirous to counteract the faults of his predecessor, falls himself into opposite vices. A senate communicates stability to a state; because it never dies, but generally remains in the same sentiments: or generally conducted by the stream of public opinion, with this it has the wisdom to swim. For this reason, however, its despotism is the more rooted, if a wise constitution be not its boundary.

The despotism of the people is, of all others, the most dreadful: but it has no durability. The people are always in their minority. Demagogues, the worst of men, are their tutors, and continually lead them into anarchy; and from anarchy monarchical despotism invariably results. The people then discover too late, when they have become too corrupt for a wise constitution, that democratical despotism is the most dreadful of all political evils.

The constitution of Venice appears to me only to have secured itself against the despotism of democracy, and monarchy, by the aristocracy having taken upon itself to correct its own abuse of power. In itself, this constitution seems exceedingly imperfect: but in its administration it is mild and wise. Both city and country are well affected to the government: the provincial nobility no doubt the least.

In like manner as the tribunal of the ten keep the nobility of Venice in awe, so does the tribunal of the forty, called *La quarantia criminale*, curb the remainder of the republic. This tribunal maintains its secret spies; and is quickly informed of whatever may appear to endanger the repose of the state. Eager to mistrust and quick to execute, the *quarantia* is dreadful to the citizens: yet it does not infringe the freedom of the people in their common affairs. If they obey the laws, and enter into no discourse against the government, they are perfectly secure. Whoever speaks

too freely is once, or oftener, cited and cautioned. If this be diſregarded, the diſobedient is then for a time impriſoned.

The ſpiritual court of inquiſition has little power. It conſiſts of the Pope's Nuncio, the Archbiſhop of Venice, who is patriarch of Dalmatia, the inquiſitor, and three lay-counſellors. It takes no cognizance either of blaſphemy or of the licenſing of books: neither are the Jews or Greeks dependant upon it. Theſe objects are all within the juriſdiction of the lay-magiſtracy.

I had almoſt forgotten to mention the Doge, who in his palace and in the council only enjoys princely honours. In the council, he has the title of Serenita, or Serene; and is diſtinguiſhed from other ſenators in the aſſembly by a purple mantle, and a red velvet hat. He holds precedency in the four different chambers of the council. To him all petitions and memorials are addreſſed: but he muſt communicate them to the council. All writings of the great council are iſſued in his name: as likewiſe are the credentials of ambaſſadors to foreign courts; though they are not ſigned by him, and are ſealed with the arms of the republic. He does not, as ſeveral books affirm, poſſeſs two votes, but only one, in the council.

The coins of Venice on one ſide have the name and the figure of a Doge, kneeling to St Mark; and the arms of the republic on the reverſe. When he addreſſes the great council, it is in theſe words: "Great Council, Sovereign of the Republic and me."

His whole revenue conſiſts only of 15,000 ducats of Venice. A Venetian ducat is nearly of the ſame value as a convention dollar. He is annually obliged to give five magnificent feaſts; and to invite all foreign ambaſſadors, and the patricians in office, according to their rank. This revenue therefore, or rather this ſalary, is certainly too little; when we recollect that the perſon who is elected may not renounce the dignity, although the council may object to the perſon elected, or depoſe him when in office. He has indeed ſome caſual perquiſites, and ſells all the employments of his palace.

The church of St Mark only is under his juriſdiction; and the benefices belonging to it are in his gift. He beſtows the order of Knight of St Mark. While he lives, neither his children nor brothers muſt aſpire to the firſt dignities of the republic, or to the office of ambaſſador.

It is ſaid of the Doge: he is a king in purple, a counſellor in the council, a priſoner in the city, and out of it a private perſon. In the city he is always attended by the ſix ſenators; who with him conſtitute the ſignoria: nor is he permitted to leave Venice without their ſanction.

On the day of Aſcenſion, he goes upon the water on board of a ſuperb veſſel, called the bucentoro, attended by the lords of the ſignoria, foreign ambaſſadors, and innumerable gondole. On this occaſion he throws a gold ring into the ſea; on which he pronounces the following Latin ſentence: *Deſponſamus te, mare, in ſignum veri perpetuique dominii.*—We eſpouſe thee, oh ſea! in token of truth and eternal ſovereignty.

When dead, his body with all the inſignia of his dignity lies three days in ſtate, in the palace; during which time his government is ſcrutinized, by inquiſitors who are appointed for that purpoſe. His creditors are likewiſe ſummoned. If his government be pronounced unjuſt, his relations are fined; they likewiſe are obliged to pay his debts: neither is he buried at the expence of the republic. It cannot eſcape your memory that a ſimilar court ſat in judgment over the dead kings of ancient Egypt.

The Doge is elected by a plurality of votes, in the great council. Theſe votes are never given verbally, in Venice; but, on all occaſions, the negative, or affirmative, is ſignified by little balls. In the choice of the Doge, there is a mixture of intention and of chance; by the

the latter of which it is determined who ſhall finally be the electors. The manner of election makes it difficult to chooſe an improper perſon for the office. nor is it eaſy for any man to influence the choice, for no one knows who will at laſt be the electors. Thoſe in whoſe favour the nine firſt balls are given elect forty; and thoſe of the forty who have twelve balls elect five-and-twenty in addition. Of this number nine perſons, who have drawn golden balls, chooſe forty more: eleven of theſe, who are appointed in the ſame way, elect one-and-forty councellors. Theſe perſons finally proceed to the election; which remains undetermined till ſome one perſon has five-and-twenty voices in his favour. In all other important deciſions a majority of two balls is required: in affairs of leſs moment, a majority of one is deciſive.

The balls are thrown into a paſte-board box, which has three apertures underneath: one white, one green, and one red. The white is the affirmative, the green the negative, and the red is called *Non ſincera:* for in this thoſe perſons throw their balls who are undetermined. By theſe means, it remains wholly unknown what is the opinion of each elector, and whether he have voted, or for whom.

As preſident of the different chambers, the Doge has the right to remind the judges and other magiſtrates of their duty: but, as his power is ſo limited, it is a privilege which he ſeldom exerciſes.

When he addreſſes the aſſembly, the members all ſtand; and the honour thus ſhewn him often prevents him from opening his lips, or from holding any long diſcourſe: he being very careful to give offence to none.

Judging by appearances, we might be inclined to think the Doge a ſuperfluous perſon in the republic; and to tell the Venetians they would have done better if, inſtead of this eternal ſhadow of power, they had indulged themſelves in the poſſibilty, on extraordinary occaſions, of nominating a citizen for a ſhort period, who, liable afterwards to be brought to account, ſhould poſſeſs unlimited rule, after the example of the Romans, when they either conferred abſolute power on one of their conſuls, with the formula *Ne quid detrimenti capiat res publica:* look, conſul, that the republic receive no injury: or when they appointed one of their conſuls dictators.

On a nearer inveſtigation, however, of this important queſtion, we may incline to think the office of doge not ſo inſignificant as it appears. The privilege of precedency in the four chambers inconteſtibly gives him much influence, though he only has a ſingle vote. Neither will thoſe have any deep knowledge of man, who are ignorant that the pomp of office gives a value to his opinion, of which in itſelf it is not poſſeſſed. The practice of the Romans was effective, and more than once ſaved the republic: but it was dangerous.

The palace of the doge is called *Il palazzo di San Marco:* after the great place of St Mark. This palace contains the halls of aſſembly for the great council, for the ſenate or *Conſiglio de i Pregadi,* for the council of ten, for the ſignoria, and the hall in which the doge gives audience to ambaſſadors, with the hall of four doors, and others. Each of theſe is embelliſhed with paintings, of the Venetian ſchool, by Titian, Paul Veroneſe, Tintorett, Vicentino, Old Parma, the three brothers, Gian-Ponte, Franceſcoe and Leandro Baſſano, Cavaliere Liberi, Zuccharini, and Lazarini, repreſenting the principal events in the hiſtory of Venice.

In the paſſages of this palace there are lion-heads of marble, above and below, down the mouths of which ſecret complaints are thrown; which fall into boxes, the keys of which are kept by the ſtate-inquiſitors, who are to determine whether the complaints are well founded. There is an inſcription under each lion head, ſignifying to what kind of miſdemeanor it is appropriated.

The

The church of St Mark is likewiſe built in the place of that name; the fantaſtic architecture of which has imparted to it ſomething of a character of greatneſs. Facing the church in this place there are five large arcades, over the centre one of which four gilded horſes, modelled of Corinthian braſs, are placed; which the Venetians, in the beginning of the thirteenth century under their great Doge Dandolo, with the aid of the French, brought from Conſtantinople, after taking that city, and placed them in Venice. They had been ſent from Rome to Conſtantinople, by Conſtantine the Great; and had ornamented the triumphal arch firſt of Nero, and then of Trajan. Their great beauty appears to denote that they were of the flouriſhing times of Greek art: though I will not pretend to affirm, with the Venetians, that they are the work of Lyſippus, the contemporary of Alexander the Great.

The place of St Mark, which properly conſiſts of two places, *La piazza e le piazetta*, or the place and the little place, though the ſmalleſt is very ſpacious, adds greatly to the beauty of the city; and is juſtly eſteemed as one of the firſt, if not the very firſt, and moſt beautiful of the kind in Europe.

The magiſtrates called *Procuratori di San Marco* are next in rank to the Doge: their influence however, in the government is not conſiderable. They are divided into three orders. The *Procuratori di ſopra* are the proper *Procuratori di San Marco*. The *Procuratori di citra* have the juriſdiction of that part of the city which lies on this ſide of the great canal; and the *Procuratori altra* on the other ſide. The firſt have precedence of all the other nobility; and from their body the Doge is generally choſen. Under their ſuperintendance are the library of *San Marco*, the church revenues, and the archives.

The ſecond and third claſſes are executors of legacies *ad pias cauſas*, have the protection of orphans and widows, annually divide certain ſums for the portioning of poor girls, and ſuperintend the ranſom of the Chriſtians impriſoned by the Barbary corſairs. If I do not miſtake, they are nominated by the Doge. He generally appoints ſuch perſons as have been ambaſſadors to foreign courts, provided they are rich: for the office is highly expenſive. Their uſual number is eleven; and theſe offices had their origin in the eleventh century, when one of the principal citizens was firſt intruſted with the adminiſtration of the revenue, and the ſuperintendance of the church of *San Marco*.

TOPOGRAPHY AND NATURAL HISTORY OF SCOTLAND.

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COUNTY OF FIFE.

THIS fine and populous county, extends nearly 60 miles in length, and about 16 in breadth. The Frith of Forth waſhes the ſouth, the Britiſh ocean its eaſtern boarders; on the north-eaſt and north, the Frith of Tay is its limits; on the north-weſt it is bounded by the ſhire of Perth, and on the weſt by Kinroſs and Clackmanan ſhires. Having two of its ſides begirt with the Friths of Forth and Tay, the towns and villages are thick planted on its borders; in proportion to its extent, it is the moſt populous county of Scotland. From its ſituation, it muſt have been inhabited at an early period; the fiſhings, coal mines, and advantages for navigation, would attract ſettlers, the coaſt would therefore be firſt peopled, and beſt cultivated; this appears to have been the caſe in the time of James VI. who compared this county to a grey mantle, with a gold fringe. Many of the burghs on the coaſt, are ſaid to have enjoyed his peculiar regard and attention. As is generally the caſe, the land riſes gradually from the ſhore, but not to any great height, excepting the two conical hills, called the Lomonds.

The

The peninsula which projects to the east, also rises to a considerable eminence too at Largo Law: there are also some continued ranges of hills, but their height is inconsiderable. Though the coast be in general rich and well cultivated, the interior was till lately greatly neglected. Planting and improvements now go on with spirit in most quarters. The rivers are inconsiderable, the *Eden* and the *Leven* are the largest. The black cattle raised in this county were long esteemed the largest and the best which were produced in Scotland; but in this many other counties now rival Fife. The best crops are barley, oats, peas, and potatoes, wheat is also raised, but not generally. Fife can boast of possessing several antient seats of royalty. At Dumfermline, Kinghorn, Falkland, and St Andrews, vestiges of regal splendour may yet be seen. The famous M'Duffs, Earls of Fife, inhabited castles in this county, so early as the reign of Malcolm III.; and the Abbies of Dunfermline, Balmerino, and Lindores, with that on Inchcolm, were among the most antient and richest in Scotland. It has been observed, that landed property in Fife always sells at a higher price than in any other county in Scotland; this is said to be owing, chiefly to the more minute division of property here, than in most other counties, few gentlemen possessing such large estates, as to set them far above the rank and society of their neighbours. In describing this county more particularly, we shall begin at the south-west point, with the parish of

Torryburn lies on the western extremity of this county, and extends from N. W. to S. E. about 8 miles, from E. to W. 2, it contains 1600 inhabitants. The country is on the whole flat and well cultivated, situated on the frith of Forth, it has a tolerable good harbour, to which there belong 13 vessels large and small. The great export is coals.

Inverkeithing, this parish extends around a bay of that name, about 3 miles on both sides; it contains rather more than 2200 inhabitants. The surface is considerably varied; but the greater part is under tillage, and yields good crops, the soil being chiefly a marly clay. The town is a very antient royal burgh, pleasantly situated above the bay, which affords a fine anchorage for shipping, and good protection from all storms. There is little trade here, coal and salt are the principal exports. The revenue of the town is about 200l. per annum: The land rent of the whole parish nearly 3000l. A little to the west of the Ferry, stands Rosyth Tower, a favourite residence of Queen Mary. The famous Admiral Greig, the father of the Russian navy, was a native of this town. Immediately adjoining to the east, lies the parish of

Dalgety, which extends along the Forth about 3 miles; from N. to S. is is about 4, and contains 870 inhabitants. The surface is considerably varied with small hills, and it rises considerably from the water's edge; the soil inclines to a loamy clay, and is productive, and would yield in whole about 2000l. Sterling per annum. The Earl of Moray's residence of Dinibirstle, and the island of St Comb, give a picturesque appearance to this quarter. The coal and salt trade are carried on to a considerable extent upon the property of Sir John Henderson. Going eastward on the coast, we meet with the parish of

Aberdour, the average extent of which is about 3 miles each way, the number of inhabitants about 1280. The ground rises to the north considerably above the level of the sea, and is a cold and sour soil. Aberdour has a small harbour, frequented by a few small vessels. The situation of the old castle of Aberdour rising amidst venerable trees, has been much admired. The views of the Forth and the opposite coast are highly beautiful. Off this coast lies the island of Inchcolm, with its antient monastery, already noticed.

Brunt Island also extending on the bank of the Forth about 3 miles, contains

tains nearly 1100 inhabitants. The town is pleaſantly ſituated upon a peninſula ſurrounded with hills, and poſſeſſes a ſafe and commodious, though ſmall harbour. It was conſtituted a royal burgh by King James VI.. Before the Union the trade to this port was very conſiderable, ſince that period it has been trifling. The herring fiſhery during the ſeaſon, has drawn conſiderable numbers to it theſe two laſt years. There is alſo a ſugar houſe and vitriol manufactory carried on here. The rocks about half a mile north of the town have much the appearance of volcanic incruſtation. Rude baſaltic columns in maſſes, from 2 to 4 feet long, are to be ſeen at Duncarn hill. On the hill of Orrock, a little to the north eaſt, tradition ſays, that diamonds were found. There is a mineral ſpring, too, upon it, which has not been analyſed. The ſhore abounds with beautiful ſlags of ſhell marble. The ſtallactites and incruſtations found at Stanly burn, have been long admired. Still following the coaſt eaſtward, we enter the pariſh of

KINGHORN, the length of which is 4, and the breadth 3½ miles, containing 1767 inhabitants. The ſurface is rugged and hilly; the ſoil, where capable of being ploughed, is a rich black mould, and very productive. Kinghorn ſtands pleaſantly upon the declivity of the hill facing the Forth. It is a royal burgh of conſiderable antiquity. Near it are ſeen the ruins of an old caſtle, once a kingly reſidence. The tower of Seaſield, ſituated on the beach about one mile to the eaſt, and St Leonard's tower in the heart of the town, are places of great antiquity. Kinghorn has two harbours, the Pettycur for the convenience of the ferry boats, and one at the foot of the town. The trade is very inconſiderable. It has long been famous for the knitting of thread ſtockings. There has been within theſe few years machinery erected for ſpining cotton and flax, which bids fair for ſucceſs. A very good ſpecimen of baſaltic columns may be ſeen about half way between Kinghorn and the Pettycur, cloſe by the ſea.

ABBOTSHALL is a ſmall pariſh alſo on the coaſt; extending about 2 miles each way, and contains about 2140 inhabitants. A conſiderable part on the coaſt is level, and the ſoil light and good, farther inland it riſes to beautiful ſloping banks. It abounds in coal and lime. The quarry of Innertiel is compoſed of entrochi and ſhells, many of them ſuch as we have no counterpart in the recent ſtate. On a riſing ground near Raith houſe, Mr Ferguſon has erected an obſervatory, which commands a noble proſpect. Adjoining to this lies the pariſh of

KIRKALDY, of irregular ſhape, where longeſt the extent does not exceed 3, and the breadth about 1 mile. The ſurface, riſing gradually for a quarter of a mile above one of the fineſt extents of ſand any where to be ſeen, is pretty flat, and the ſoil a rich fertile black loam; many parks around the town, let at 5l. per acre. Having the Forth in front, and the policies and parks of Raith and Dinnekier in the back ground, this may be reckoned one of the fineſt ſituations to be met with. As a town, Kirkaldy has little to boaſt of, its long, narrow, ill paved, and dirty ſtreets, have often been the ſubject of complaint; and the houſes, excepting a few lately built, are but indifferent. It is in a very thriving ſtate, and perhaps there are few towns in Scotland of the ſize, where a more reſpectable and wealthy ſociety is to be met with. Kirkaldy is a royal burgh, and a preſbytery ſeat. In the pariſh there are about 2670 inhabitants; this population, and that of Abbotſhall, is owing to the manufacture of checks and tickings which has long been the ſtaple of this place. The harbour, though none of the beſt, has been conſtructed at a conſiderable expence, and there are no leſs than 26 ſquare rigged veſſels belonging to it, beſides ſmaller craft. They are chiefly employed in the carrying trade. There is coal, limeſtone, and ironſtone here.

Oa

On a bold eminence on the east of the harbour, stands the castle of Rivenscraig, but which is locally situated in the parish of Dysart. (See Dysart, below.) Kirkaldy has produced many eminent men, among these we may name Michael Scot, the Friar Bacon of Scotland, who flourished in the 13th century, Messrs Geo. and Pat. Gillespy, the former of whom, with Mr R. Douglas also minister of Kirkaldy, had the honour of being appointed commissioner to the assembly of Divines at Westminster, in the 17th century. The Rev. Dr John Dryfdale of Edinburgh, and that famous patriot and statesman, the late Mr Oswald of Dunnikier, deserve also to be particularly mentioned. This town has also the honour of giving birth to Dr Adam Smith, author of the Wealth of Nations, and other valuable works *. Adjoining is the parish of

Dysart, the extreme length of which is 4, and the breadth 3 miles, containing no fewer than 4860 inhabitants, though the number of acres in the parish be only 3054. The ground rises from the sea for about a mile northward, the soil in general is light and well cultivated; the coast is high and rocky; coal and limestone abound. The Dysart coal was amongst the first wrought in Scotland about 300 years ago: there are two strata lying about 18 inches separate, the upper is 5, the under is 8 feet thick. Dysart was created a Royal Burgh in the beginning of the 16th century; 23 square rigged vessels and 2 sloops belong to it, value 30,000l. Sterling; its harbour is good, the chief trade is coal and salt. Pathhead was long famous for the manufacture of iron nails; it is said that Dr Adam Smith took his first notions of the advantages of the division of labour from seeing the smiths at work here. Of late this manufacture has declined much; but there is a great increase in the manufacture of checks, tickings, &c. There are at present 43 smiths who make about 6 millions of nails annually, value about 1000l. Sterling. Below Path-head on the point of the rock stands the castle of Riven's Craig. It was gifted by King James III. to St Clair Earl of Orkney, with the lands adjoining, when he resigned that title. It has ever since been possessed by the family of St Clair. It was inhabited in Oliver Cromwell's time, but has for a long period been in a ruinous state. It stands upon a sand-stone rock which is much excavated by the sea.

Wemyss parish, adjoining to Dysart on the east, is about 6 miles in length, and 1½ in breadth, containing not less than 3020 inhabitants, in this small bounds. The appearance is varied, the ground rises from the shore, and is considerably broken, the soil is partly clay, and partly of sand. It contains 4 considerable villages, Wemyss Easter and Wester, Buckhaven and Methil. Buckhaven used to be a great fishing town, but since the haddocks left the coast it has fallen off; 40 years ago it was no uncommon thing for the fishermen of this town to catch 25,000 haddocks in one day, which were sold from 6d. to 10d. the 100. The fishers here came originally from the Netherlands, about the time of Philip II. Their vessel was stranded on the shore, and they agreed to settle here. Coal and salt are the great articles of export. There are ten square rigged vessels belonging to the parish, but they are chiefly employed in the carrying trade. The most remarkable residence is Wemyss Castle, the property of Colonel Wemyss, surrounded with fine planting and extensive policy. The neat and romantic gardens at Chapel, deserve to be visited. All the rocks being composed of sand-stone, many of them are excavated in a remarkable manner, which circumstance has given rise to the name Wemyss, in Gaelic, signifying a cave. The river Leven is the eastern boundary of this parish with

Scoonie or Leven, 9 miles in length and about 2 in breadth, containing 1670

* See Vol. III. p. 3. N. S. for an account of this eminent Philosopher.

inhabitants. The soil is good, and mostly all inclosed, the rent is about 2000l. per annum. There is some salmon caught in the river Leven, coal is the chief export. In this parish lies the estate of Durie, which was for near two centuries in the possession of the family of Gibson, some of whom were very eminent men. One was Lord Register, and another Lord President of the Court of Session. Adjoining to Scoonie is the parish of

Largo, of an irregular figure, extending from S. W. to N. E. nearly 6 miles, and containing upwards of 3900 inhabitants. On the west it is washed by the frith of Forth, forming a beautiful bay, which takes its name from this place; the south part of the parish exhibits a picturesque and delightful scene of elegant country seats, skirted with thriving plantations, and interspersed with populous villages, and fertile fields. The soil towards the sea is sandy, but inland it is a black mould, or black loam. Largo Law, a conical hill in the back ground, rises about 800 feet above the level of the sea. This parish has given birth to several eminent men; the brave Sir Andrew Wood who flourished in the reign of James III. and IV. was proprietor of the barony of Largo. After him, it came into the possession of the family of Durham the present owners. The celebrated Mr James Durham who was first a Captain of dragoons, and afterwards minister of the High Church of Glasgow, during the usurpation of Cromwell, was a younger son of this family. Alexander Selkirk so well known by the name of Robison Crusoe, also contributes to the celebrity of his native parish; the chest and musket which he had with him in the island of Juan Fernandez are still in the possession of his grand nephew John Selkirk weaver in Largo. Adjoining to Largo on the east is the parish of

Newburn in extent 3½ miles long and 2 broad, containing 460 inhabitants. Almost the whole land is arable and inclosed, producing good crops. The appearance is delightful, the scenery variegated, and the views extensive, and upon the whole, may be reckoned one of the finest parishes in the county.

Kilconquhar extends 8 English miles in length and 2 in breadth. The number of inhabitants is upwards of 2000. The appearance is considerably varied, but the greater part is arable and fertile. In this parish stands the once Royal Burgh of Earls ferry, now an inconsiderable village. To the west of the town stands Kincraig rock, remarkable for caves, one of which, called Macduff's cave, penetrates about 200 feet into the rock; the roof is 160 feet high, forming on the whole a very majestic alcove. This parish is adorned with several elegant country seats, among which are Balcarras, Kilconquhar, Newton, Lathallan, Kincraig, and Grange. The eye of the traveller is attracted by the castle of Rires situated on an eminence, and commanding an extensive prospect. It appears to have been intended for a place of strength, having a ditch surrounding it 70 feet wide.

Ely is a small parish, 1¼ miles in length, and 1 in breadth, and contains 620 inhabitants, the whole land is inclosed, and mostly the property of Sir John Anstruther, who has an elegant residence here called Ely house. The town is a Royal Burgh, and has an excellent harbour belonging to it. Rubies of a brilliant lustre are frequently found in the sands here. Adjoining to Ely on the east is

St Monance, a very small parish, little more than a mile square. It is washed by the sea, above which the land rises suddenly, but to no great height; after which it is generally flat. It is all inclosed and well cultivated. The great employment of the inhabitants of this place is fishing, which has rather declined of late years, from the scarcity of haddocks on this coast.

Pittenweem extends in length little more than an English mile, in breadth about half a one; it contains 1160 inhabitants. The ground is flat,

the soil in general a black loam and very fertile. Pittenweem was constituted a Royal Burgh by King James V. Dr Douglas present Bishop of Salisbury, is a native of this town. The greatest curiosity here, is a cave situated within the burgh, consisting of two spacious apartments, the innermost having a well of excellent water at the farther end of it. They seem to have been connected with the Abbey by a subterraneous passage. Going still eastward along the coast, we enter the parish of

ANSTRUTHER WESTER, a small parish, consisting of about 550 acres of land, almost all in culture, and containing 370 inhabitants. The town, a Royal Burgh, is but an insignificant fishing village; off the coast, about 6 miles to the east, stands the Isle of May, about 1 mile long, and ½ broad. One side of the rock is composed of stately basaltic columns. It is inhabited by a family who have charge of the lighthouse and a few sheep.

ANSTRUTHER EASTER adjoining to the former, is also a small parish, containing about 1000 inhabitants, next to it is

KILRENNEY, also a small parish, measuring about two miles each way, and containing nearly 1100 inhabitants, and yielding about 2200l. Sterling of rent yearly. Nothing remarkable occurs in these three parishes, they were all more considerable some years ago from the fishing on the coast, which is now almost nothing to what it was 40 years ago. On the eastmost point lies the parish of

CRAIL, 6 miles of length, but of an irregular breadth, containing about 1710 inhabitants; the surface is flat and naked. Being much exposed to the east wind, trees do not thrive well. The Borough is of great antiquity, and bears evident marks of having seen better days. In conjunction with the two Anstruthers, Kilrenny, and Pittenweem, Crail sends a member to Parliament. There are several gentlemens seats here worth viewing, as Balcomie, the residence of the late General Scot, and Airdrie, the residence of the late General Anstruther. Leaving Crail and turning northward round the east nook of Fife we enter the parish of

KINGSBARNS which formerly made a part of Crail, it is nearly a square of 4 miles, and contains somewhat above 800 inhabitants. The manufacture of Osnaburgh linen is carried on to a small extent for the Dundee market. Next to this lies

DENINO, also of small extent, being only three miles in length, and about 1½ in breadth. The number of its inhabitants is scarcely 400. The appearance is very naked and bleak, the soil sour and swampy. Next to this is the parish of

ST ANDREWS, an extensive and populous parish, upwards of 10 miles long, and 4 broad, and containing nearly 4340 inhabitants. The ground rises gradually from the shore, and forms a beautiful semicircle, in which all the variety of soil is to be met with, behind are moors covered with heath and furz. The rivers Eden and Kenlowie discharge themselves here into the ocean. The town is pleasantly situated on a bay, and was once very famous and opulent, at the annual fair, no less than from 2 to 500 vessels resorting to this port. Now the chief support of this Royal Burgh is the University, which is the oldest in Scotland, being founded in 1444. It formerly consisted of 3 colleges; in 1749, St Salvator's and St Leonard's were, upon a petition to Parliament, united into one. The ruins of the cathedral which was demolished by the hands of the mob, instigated by a sermon of John Knox's, the much admired ruins of the chapel of Grayfriars, and those of Cardinal Bethune's castle, contribute to the picturesque appearance of this venerable city. The ancient society of archers, now golfers of this place, has long been famous.

CARNBEE. Is nearly a square of four miles, containing 1040 inhabitants. The surface rises gradually, and termi-

nates in little hills, of a conical form, called *Laws*; the higheſt of which, Kelly Law, riſes 800 feet above the level of the ſea. From the high grounds down to the ſea it is loamy, and produces good crops.

LEUCHARS is of a very irregular ſhape; its greateſt length is 8 miles, and breadth five; the number of inhabitants 1620. The fiſhing upon the coaſt had once been conſiderable, but is now neglected, except of ſalmon in the river Edin. Pitlethie was a hunting ſeat of James the VI.

FORGAN pariſh is in length 4 miles, in breadth 2, and contains about 880 inhabitants. It lies upon the north ſide of the river Tay, oppoſite to the town of Dundee. The ſoil is for the moſt part light, but of late conſiderable progreſs has been made in cultivating and improving it.

LOGIE lies about 3 miles from Cupar: It extends 2½ miles from eaſt to weſt, and 1 from north to ſouth. The country is in general hilly, but fertile; the higheſt is Lucklaw hill, anciently a hunting park of the kings of Scotland. The number of inhabitants in the pariſh is 425.

FERRY-PORTON-CRAIG, ſituated on the river Tay, contains above 2000 inhabitants. It preſents a rocky and broken appearance. Before the bridge was built over the Tay at Perth, this paſſage was much frequented. The manufacture of brown linen for the Dundee market employs a good many hands here.

NEWBURGH ſituated at the foot of the Ochil hills, is of a very irregular figure, it forms the N. W. boundary of the county, and contains upwards of 1660 inhabitants. It lies on the banks of the Tay, and the tide flows here, ſo as to carry veſſels of 500 tons burden, it has the appearance of an arm of the ſea. The ſurface is upon the whole flat, and the ſoil rich. In the midſt of a rich and extenſive plain, ſtand the ruins of the ancient Abbey of Lindores. Here too ſtand the famous croſſes of M'Duff and Mugdrum. The town is a place of conſiderable antiquity, had been long on the decline, but now begins to aſſume a better appearance, and ſeems to keep pace with the general improvements of the country. The chief employment is the weaving trade.

(*To be continued.*)

REVIEW OF NEW BOOKS.

Sir George Staunton's Account of the Embaſſy to China. Continued from page 830.

WE have endeavoured to ſelect ſuch extracts, as might impart a ſatisfactory account of a work, which, from the ſingularity and magnitude of its ſubject, will naturally excite unuſual attention. We intended to have accompanied the Embaſſy during the whole of their viſit in China; but find it would occupy too much of our bounds. We have already noticed ſeveral circumſtances relative to this ſingular country, and ſhall occaſionally introduce others which appear intereſting. At preſent we ſhall finiſh the article with a ſummary of particulars, which will naturally excite a curioſity to read the work at large.

"The Chineſe empire is one of the greateſt civil objects that the imagination can contemplate:—a territory fifteen times as extenſive as the iſland of Great Britain, containing three hundred and thirty-three millions of inhabitants, and compoſing above a third part of the whole exiſting generations of men ſcattered over the earth, not only united by the ſtrong hand of power under the ſame dominion, but harmoniſed by the ſame laws, manners, and civil and military inſtitutions; cultivating the ſame arts and ſciences, ſpeaking and writing the ſame language; and, with all this wonderful uniformity among themſelves, totally diſſimilar in their cuſtoms, purſuits, and attainments, from every other por-

portion either of the favage or of the civilifed inhabitants of the world. How completely they differ from the nations of Europe, and how little communication muft, till very receutly, have taken place between thofe widely-feparated communities, are evident from the perpetual contrariety in matters of little moment, as well as in particulars of the moft importance. In Europe, the right hand is the place of honour: in China, it is the left. The white colour in Europe is the emblem of joy and feftivity, of youth and innocence: in China, the fame colour betokens lamentation and forrow:—it is rigorouſly proſcribed in ſcenes of gaiety, and excluſively employed in funeral proceſſions. In Europe, parents tranſmit nobility to their children:—in China, nobility by deſcent is unknown: but a man, who is rendered illuſtrious on account of his own merit, communicates the honours of rank and title to his deceaſed progenitors. Hanging is the puniſhment which conveys moſt degradation in Europe: but in China hanging is leſs infamous than beheading. Even in a particular which is ſuppoſed to form the link of connection between them, and to have been introduced from the one country to the other—the mariner's compaſs—the theory in China is directly the reverſe of that which is prevalent in Europe. The power which attracts the needle may be ſuppoſed to reſide in either pole; in Europe, it is thought that the needle has its chief tendency to the north: but in China the ſouth alone is ſuppoſed to contain the attractive power. The Chineſe name of the compaſs is ting-nan-ching, or needle pointing to the ſouth; and a diſtinguiſhing mark is fixed on the magnet's ſouthern pole, as in European compaſſes on the northern one.

"The enthuſiaſm of martial ſpirits may have diffuſed other names and nations over an equal portion of the globe: but the peculiarity of the country of which we now ſpeak is that the provinces of China proper—that is, of China within the wall—contains upwards of three hundred millions of inhabitants. In point of wealth, that country ſtrikes us with a leſs overawing idea of grandeure: yet its wealth alſo muſt be ſufficently magnificent; ſince the ſurplus-produce of its land and labour ſuffices to pay, annually, into the Imperial treaſury, upwards of ſixty millions ſterling. It is a curious ſpeculation, how ſo much proſperity has been produced; and how ſuch a large proportion of mankind is ſecurely maintained, and regularly governed. Firſt of all, reaſon, cuſtom, every maxim derived from authority, and every image moſt impreſſive on fancy, are continually employed to recommend rural labour as incomparably the moſt eſſential exertion of human induſtry. In the Chineſe hieroglyphic or written language, landed property is the favourite emblem of happineſs. Lands uncultivated eſcheat to the province; and the wits of a moſt ingenious people are principally exerciſed in contriving various expedients, ſome of them of the moſt extraordinary kind, for heightening the natural fertility of the ſoil; and, in general, for ſupplying an exuberant population with food, the great and moſt unceaſing want of mankind.

"In preparing the earth for cultivation, in preſerving the ſeed, in compounding ſoils and manures, and in the higheſt refinement of drill huſbandry, the Chineſe excel all nations. The land in general produces two crops in a year; and it never needs to lie fallow. Sugar, the moſt nutritious of ſubſtances, every where abounds; and there is hardly a vegetable in China which has not its ſpecific uſe, undiſcovered or unemployed in other countries. The ſeeds of the ſagara are uſed by way of pepper. An excellent oil is extracted from the kernels of apricots inſtead of olives. The Chineſe manufacture cloth from the fibres of the dead nettle, and make paper from thoſe of hemp and from the ſtraw of rice. The momordica ſerves for cucumber; a cardous is eaten as a relish with rice: the carthamus affords their fineſt red; they dye black with the cup of the acorn; and the leaves of the aſh are ſubſtituted for thoſe of mulberry in feeding ſilk worms.

"Neither uſeleſs plants nor devouring animals are allowed to intercept the fruits of the earth, almoſt excluſively deſtined in China to the maintainance of the human race. Horſes are but little uſed either for agriculture or conveyance. The poor walk; the rich are carried by men in palanquins; and heavy goods are conveyed by canals. There are ſcarcely any parks and pleaſure-grounds, except thoſe which belong to the emperor. The people in general are contented with grain and roots, mixed with

with a ſmall reliſh of animal food. Even milk, cheeſe, and butter, the principal reſources of paſtoral life, are, on account of the ſcarcity of domeſtic animals, but little uſed among them.—To enter more at large into the cauſes which have produced, and which maintain, the exuberant populouſneſs of China, would be to tranſcribe a great part of Sir G. Staunton's work. We muſt be contented with having ſubmitted to the reader's view the principal circumſtances, within a narrow compaſs.

"Having conſidered how ſuch an aſtoniſhing multitude of people are fed, the next point is to examine by what means they are governed. The government of China is ſingular in this, that the throne does not borrow any ſupport from the altar; and yet this throne is, perhaps, the moſt firmly eſtabliſhed of any on earth. The main pillars of Chineſe policy are the patriarchal authority, and the diſtribution of all honours and offices according to the old Greek maxim of giving to the beſt performer the beſt flute. In China, the exiſting generations of the ſame family uſually inhabit the ſame houſe, and living under the continual direction and guidance of the ſurviving heads of it. The young thus radically imbibe, more ſtrongly than in other countries, the ſpirit that has uniformly actuated their progenitors: they conform themſelves, more exactly than elſewhere, to the ſentiments and habits of the old; and they embrace, among other principles, that horror of innovation which is the frequent concomitant of declining years.

"The Chineſe diſdain operoſe refinements in mechanics, and in the dependant arts; which they never ſtrive to improve beyond the degree required by the moſt palpable and evident utility. With the character of being groſsly ignorant in medicine, they are the healthieſt people in the world; and while they are careleſs of chemiſtry as a ſcience, many of their operations on metals and minerals ſurpaſs the ſkill of our moſt profound adepts. Concerning other branches of what is called, by way diſtinction, natural ſcience, the Chineſe *literati* ſeem equally indifferent. The whole vigour of their minds is directed to the moral ſciences of ethics and politics; the proficiency in which is not only the direct road to power and honour, but the indiſpenſible requiſite to every employment in the ſtate. The art of printing, practiſed immemorially in China, powerfully co-operates with the circumſtances juſt mentioned in upholding the ſtability of government. The prerogatives of the throne are ſtrengthened and confirmed by maxims propagated from the preſs; and the reigning prince being a continual ſubject of panegyric, his advantages and honours, how great ſoever they may be, will ſcarcely appear commenſurate with the tranſcendency of his virtues. Loyalty is early impreſſed by whatever is moſt ſtriking to the ſenſes.—The proceſſions and other ceremonies, to which the Chineſe are above all nations habituated, are not merely idle forms. They contribute to inſpire or heighten ſentiments of veneration for the prince, and continually to keep alive the ſenſe of duty in the ſubject.—Notwithſtanding theſe circumſtances, however, it is aſſerted that there is a ſect in China, whoſe fundamental principle is an antipathy to monarchy. The meetings of this ſect are ſaid to be held with the utmoſt ſecrecy; and perſons ſuſpected of favouring ſuch a dangerous tenet are cut off, or hunted out, from ſociety:—but ſuch a ſect, if it really exiſts, is not likely to make many proſelytes among a people, whoſe temper, character, and manners, ſeem peculiarly well adapted to that form of policy under which the generality of the people, if not the very *poor*, have ſo long lived and flouriſhed."

The work throughout is marked with the characteriſtics of veracity, modeſty, and candour.

Calmet's Great Dictionary of the Holy Bible: hiſtorical, critical, geographical, and etymological: Wherein are explained, all the proper Names in the Old and New Teſtament, of Men, Women, Cities, Countries, Rivers, Mountains, &c. 4to.

CALMET'S name is well known in the literary world. He was of the order of Benedictines, and paſſed a long life in cloſe application to his ſtudies. In the year 1730, he publiſhed his Dictionary of the Holy Bible, critical, geographical, &c. in 4 vols. folio, in which the moſt intereſting and curious parts of the commentary are arranged in alphabetical order: this work is much celebrated for the many admirable elucidations which it contains of difficult paſſages in the Holy Scriptures, for beauti-

ful

ful delineations of Oriental manners, and for lively and entertaining hiſtories extracted from authors little known even among the learned.

From this ſhort account, it is evident that the Chriſtian world is much obliged to the preſent editor; whoſe object is not only to give a tranſlation of Calmet's Dictionary, but to make thoſe additions which may be neceſſary, by our late voyage writers, and above all by Sir William Jones, and other gentlemen who have devoted themſelves to that kind of learning; omitting at the ſame time paſſages which may be offenſive to Proteſtants, and retrenching ſome ſuperfluities.

In the introduction we find the following paſſage:

"The Bible has this remarkable character belonging to it, its doctrines and its precepts are clear as light; open at once to the unprejudiced underſtanding: and approved at once by the unbiaſſed mind: even though delivered in diſtant ages of the world, by different perſons, and on various occaſions, its principles are wonderfully uniform and ſimilar, wonderfully energetic and impreſſive. But though the character of its doctrines and precepts be clearneſs and plainneſs, yet we cannot be ſurpriſed if ſome of its hiſtoric relations, and accounts of local matters, ſhould appear, in ſome degree, confuſed:—it certainly would be infinitely ſurpriſing if they were not ſo; eſpecially when we reflect that many of them date very early, and ſome of them from the birth of time itſelf: The very antiquity of theſe may render them difficult to us of the preſent day, without any imputation on the original writer. Others refer to cuſtoms familiar to the people to whom they were addreſſed; but theſe may be obſcure to us in England, though entirely free from obſcurity to the inhabitants of the parts where their author wrote. Others refer to perſons of whom it is neceſſary to know more than theſe volumes have recorded, in order to judge by the whole of ſuch perſons' character, of the propriety of ſo much as they incidentally offer; the ſacred accounts may be perfect for the purpoſe to which they were deſigned, while imperfect in reſpect to what may be gathered from other quarters. Others refer to cities, once great and populous, now ruined and deſerted: of theſe we with geographical and hiſtorical information, more, perhaps, than the Bible affords. In ſhort, it is notorious that Empires, Kingdoms, and States, that Emperors, Kings, and Statesmen, have flouriſhed, and have ceaſed to flouriſh; they have riſen to greatneſs, and have ſunk to oblivion, during the courſe of the Bible hiſtory: by the further knowledge of their hiſtory, as collected from ancient authors, who incidentally or purpoſely mention the ſame ſubjects, we clear many particulars, which, in the Bible being only glanced at, appear intricate or perplexed.

"There are, in the prophetic parts of this book, many which relate to particular perſons and ſtates. The completion of theſe prophecies is not always recorded in the Bible; but we know from other hiſtories that they were fulfilled, and a knowledge of when, or how theſe were fulfilled, directs us to the confidence to be placed in others of the ſame kind, and juſtifies our regard to the ſacred predictions in general.

"There are many perſons of whom we could wiſh to know more than is related in the Bible; and of whom we may know more, by diligent ſtudy: for example:—I ſuppoſe there never was a Chriſtian who read his Bible, who did not wiſh to know the end of Caiaphas, of Pontius Pilate, of Herod, of the Phariſees, the Sadducees, &c. &c. all concerned in the crucifying of JESUS our Lord:—or, who did not wiſh to know the particulars of that puniſhment which fell on the Jews, and on Jeruſalem, for their rejection of the MESSIAH:—or who would not feel a ſatisfaction in reading the hiſtory of the accompliſhment of our Lord's predictions, reſpecting that holy place which was to be trodden down by the Gentiles:—or, on another ſubject, I ſuppoſe every Chriſtian, without exception, muſt feel a pleaſure in tracing the progreſs of the Goſpel among all nations, and its influence in reforming, humanizing, and bleſſing mankind.

"Now, if on theſe comparatively recent events, we deſire information, and exert our induſtry to acquire it; if theſe, to be properly underſtood, muſt be ſtudied, what ſhall we ſay of events which date thouſands of years before them; which, in conſequence, are liable to more conſiderable ambiguity, if not obſcurity; and from the manner in which they are related, are difficult to us now, though

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of no difficulty to their original readers? If we find it neceſſary, by peruſing hiſtory, to tranſport ourſelves eighteen hundred or two thouſand years back, into paſt ages of time, ſurely it cannot be leſs neceſſary, that on articles of double that antiquity, we ſhould uſe every means of information, and embrace every poſſible method of obtaining a competent acquaintance with them; of underſtanding them, and of viewing them in their true light.

"Add to theſe conſiderations, the different languages in which the ſacred books are written, and the neceſſity of intimate knowledge with the things they deſcribe, in order to comprehend correctly the deſcription given of them, and we ſhall readily acquieſce in the concluſion, that however an attentive peruſal of the Bible may make a Chriſtian reader ſpiritually wiſe, yet there will remain many things of which he will deſire to be informed: many things will appear uncouth, which he could wiſh were regulated; many will ſeem difficult, which he could wiſh were explained; and many on which his judgment is capable of receiving further ſatisfaction, even while his admiſſion of them is frank and ready.

"The manners, and cuſtoms, and modes of life, are ſo various in various countries, that with great difficulty they are explained to each other; and with ſtill great difficulty, their propriety is reſpectively admitted. The common and ordinary occurrences of life are, in their relation, extremely embarraſſing to thoſe accuſtomed to a domeſtic œconomy, entirely different, perhaps directly oppoſite: in a cold country, that deſire of ſhade which animates the inhabitants of a hot country appears perfectly ridiculous: in a country almoſt daily watered by ſhowers, the mention of rain twice a-year (the firſt and the ſecond rain, or the early and the latter rain) is quite unintelligible; in a country of houſes, every alluſion to the properties of tents is loſt, or even, perhaps, is miſunderſtood and miſemployed.

"The ſame reaſoning may be applied to the natural hiſtory of the Bible:—the Leviathan and Behemoth may be very finely deſcribed; but who, in England, is the wiſer for the deſcription? who ever ſaw either of theſe creatures, to judge of its propriety? and for want of information on this ſubject, what impertinent remarks have been made! what falſe opinions have been vented! Some have called Behemoth the *elephant*; ſome the *hippopotamos* (creatures equally foreign to us); ſome have called him the *buffalo*; the *wild-ox*; the ——; and ſome have called him the devil!!! Amid ſuch uncertainty, it is deſirable, if poſſible, to procure a juſt and determinate idea of the natural hiſtory of the ſacred Scriptures; and to demonſtrate the proper application of the creature or ſubject deſcribed."

Proofs of a Conſpiracy againſt all the Religions and Governments of Europe.
Continued from page 840.

"TO thoſe who enjoy the cheering confidence in the ſuperintendance and providence of God, who conſider themſelves as creatures whom he has made, and whom he cares for, as the ſubjects of his moral government, this Order muſt appear with every character of falſehood and abſurdity on its countenance. What *can be more improbable* than this, that He, whom we looked up to as the contriver, the maker, and director, of this goodly frame of things, ſhould have ſo far miſtaken his own plans, that this world of rational creatures ſhould have ſubſiſted for thouſands of years, before a way could be found out, by which his intention of making men good and happy could be accompliſhed; and that this method did not occur to the great Artiſt himſelf, nor even to the wiſeſt, and happieſt, and beſt men upon earth; but to a few perſons in Munich in Bavaria, who had been trying to raiſe ghoſts, to change lead into gold, to tell fortunes, or diſcover treaſures, but had failed in all their attempts; men who had been engaged for years in every whim which characteriſes a weak, a greedy, or a gloomy mind. Finding all theſe beyond their reach, they combined their powers, and, at once, found out this infinitely more important *ſecret*—for ſecret it muſt ſtill be, otherwiſe not only the Deity, but even thoſe philoſophers, will ſtill be diſappointed.

"Yet this is the doctrine that muſt be ſwallowed by the Minervals and the *Illuminati Minores*, to whom it is not yet ſafe to diſcloſe the grand ſecret, *that there is no ſuch ſuperintendence of Deity.* At laſt, however, when the pupil has conceived ſuch exalted notions of the

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blundering projector of this world, it may be no difficult matter to perſuade him that all his former notions were only old wives tales. By this time he muſt have heard much about ſuperſtition, and how mens minds have been dazzled by this ſplendid picture of a Providence and a moral government of the univerſe. It now appears incompatible with the great object of the Order, the principles of univerſal liberty and equality—it is therefore rejected without farther examination, for this reaſon alone. This was preciſely the argument uſed in France for rejecting revealed religion. It was incompatible with the Rights of Man.

"David, a King, and a ſoldier, had ſome notions of this kind. The heavens, it is true, pointed out to him a Maker and Ruler, which is more than they ſeem to have done to the Gallic philoſopher; but David was afraid that he would be forgotten in the crowd, and cries out, "Lord! what is man, that thou art mindful of *him?*" But David gets rid of his fears, not by becoming a philoſopher, and diſcovering all this to be abſurd—he would ſtill be forgotten,—he at once thinks of what he is—a noble creature—high in the ſcale of nature. "But," ſays he, "I had forgotten myſelf. Thou haſt made man but a little lower than the angels—thou haſt crowned him with glory and honour—thou haſt put all things under his feet." Here are exalted ſentiments, fit for the creature whoſe ken pierces through the immenſity of the viſible univerſe, and who ſees his relation to the univerſe, being nearly allied to its Sovereign, and capable of riſing continually in his rank, by cultivating thoſe talents which diſtinguiſh and adorn it.

"All good men, all lovers of peace and of juſtice," adds our author, "will abhor and reject the thought of overturning the preſent conſtitution of things, faulty as it may be, merely in the endeavour to eſtabliſh another, which the vices of mankind may ſubvert again in a twelvemonth. They muſt ſee, that in order to gain their point, the propoſers have found it neceſſary to deſtroy the grounds of morality, by permitting the moſt wicked means for accompliſhing any end that our fancy, warped by paſſion or intereſt, may repreſent to us as of great importance. They ſee, that inſtead of morality, vice muſt prevail, and that therefore there is no ſecurity for the continuance of this Utopian felicity; and, in the mean time, deſolation and miſery muſt lay the world waſte during the ſtruggle, and half of thoſe for whom we are ſaving will be ſwept from the face of the earth. We have but to look to France, where in eight years there have been more executions, and ſpoliations, and diſtreſſes of every kind by the *pouvoir revolutionnaire*, than can be found in the long records of that deſpotic monarchy.

After ſtating the diabolical ſcheme of illuminating the fair ſex, this chapter concludes with a juſt and highly intereſting account of the influence which they hold in ſociety, and depicts, in feeling language, the eſſential characteriſtics of the female character: This we ſhall notice at another time.

Chap. III. gives an account of the German Union, which appears to have been a mean and precipitate aſſociation, under the direction of Dr Karl Bahradt; but through which our bounds will not permit us to follow the author. He obſerves, "There is nothing ingenious, nothing new, nothing enticing, in the plans; and the immediate purpoſe of indulging the licentious taſte of the public comes ſo frequently before the eye, that it bears all the marks of that groſsneſs of mind, precipitancy, and impatient overſight that are to be found in all the voluminous writings of Dr Bahrdt. Many in Germany, however, aſcribe the Union to Weiſhaupt, and ſay that it is the Illuminati working in another form. There is no denying that the principles, and even the manner of proceeding, are the ſame in every eſſential circumſtance. Many paragraphs of the declamations circulated through Germany, with the plans, are tranſcribed verbatim from Weiſhaupt's *Corrected Syſtem of Illuminatiſm*. Much of the work *On Inſtruction, and the Means for promoting it*, is very nearly a copy of the ſame work, blended with ſlovenly extracts from ſome of his own writings.—There is the ſame ſeries of deluſions from the beginning, as in Illuminatiſm—Free Maſonry and Chriſtianity are compounded—firſt with marks of reſpect—then Chriſtianity is twiſted to a purpoſe foreign from it, but the ſame with that aimed at by Weiſhaupt—then it is thrown away altogether, and Natural Religion and Atheiſm ſubſtituted for it.—For no perſon will have a moment's heſitation in ſaying, that this

is the creed of the author of the books *On Inſtruction*, and *On the Liberty of the Preſs*. Nor can he doubt that the political principles are equally anarchical with thoſe of the Illuminati.—The endeavours alſo to get poſſeſſion of public offices, of places of education, of the public mind, by the Reading Societies, and by publications—are ſo many tranſcripts from the Illuminati.—Add to this, that Dr Bahrdt was an *Illuminatus*, and wrote the *Better than Horus*, at the command of Weiſhaupt.—Nay, it is well known that Weiſhaupt was twice or thrice at Bahrdt's Ruhe during thoſe tranſactions, and that he zealouſly promoted the formation of Reading Societies in ſeveral places."

In Chapter IV. the author lays together ſome paſſages from various publications, which ſhow, he thinks, beyond all poſſibility of doubt, that the *Illuminati* took an active part in the French revolution, and may be ſaid, indeed, to have been its chief contrivers: For theſe, which are highly important, we muſt refer to the book itſelf. The whole concludes with a number of general reflections, which we could with our plan would admit *verbatim*; but we can only touch on ſome of the moſt prominent.

"I may obſerve in the firſt place, (ſays Prof. R. p. 426.) and I beg it may be particularly attended to, that in all thoſe villainous machinations againſt the peace of the world, the attack has been firſt made on the principles of Morality and Religion. The conſpirators ſaw that till theſe are extirpated, they have no chance of ſucceſs; and their manner of proceeding ſhows that they conſider Religion and Morality as inſeparably connected together. We learn much from this—*Fas eſt et ab hoſte doceri*. They endeavour to deſtroy our religious ſentiments, by firſt corrupting our morals. They try to inflame our paſſions, that when the demands from this quarter become urgent, the reſtraints of Religion may immediately come in ſight, and ſtand in the way. They are careful, on this occaſion, to give ſuch a view of thoſe reſtraints, that the real origin of them does not appear. We are made to believe, that they have been altogether the contrivance of prieſts and deſpots, in order to get the command of us. They take care to ſupport theſe aſſertions by facts, which, to our great ſhame, and greater misfortune, are but too numerous. Having now the paſſions on their ſide, they find no difficulty in perſuading the voluptuary, or the diſcontented, that tyranny actually exerted, or reſolved on in future, is the ſole origin of religious reſtraint. He ſeeks no further argument, and gives himſelf no trouble to find any.—Had he examined the matter with any care, he would find himſelf juſt brought back to thoſe very feelings of moral excellence and moral depravity that he wiſhes to get rid of altogether; and theſe would tell him that pure Religion does not lay a ſingle reſtraint on us that a noble nature would not have laid on itſelf, nor enjoins a ſingle duty which an ingenuous and warm heart would not be aſhamed to find itſelf deficient in. He would then ſee that all the ſanctions of Religion are ſuited to high rank in the ſcale of exiſtence. And the more he contemplates his future proſpects, the more they brighten upon his view, the more attainable they appear, and the more he is able to know what they may probably be. Having attained this happy ſtate of mind, (an attainment in the power of any kind heart that is in earneſt in the inquiry), he will think that no puniſhment is too great for the unthankful and grovelling ſoul which can forego ſuch hopes, and reject theſe noble proffers, for the comparatively frivolous and tranſitory gratifications of life. He is not frightened into worthy and virtuous conduct by fears of ſuch merited puniſhment; but, if not enticed into it by his high expectations, he is, at leaſt, retained in the paths of virtue by a kind of manly ſhame.

"We have learned the ſum total of this political Illumination, and ſee that, if true, it is melancholy, deſtructive of our preſent comforts, numerous as they are, and affords no proſpect of redreſs from which we can profit, but, on the contrary, plunges mankind into diſſention, mutual injury, and univerſal miſery, and all this for the *chance* only of prevailing in the conteſt, and giving our poſterity a *chance* of going on in peace, if no change ſhall be produced, as in former times, by the efforts of ambitious men.

"An ideal ſtandard is continually referred to. This is made gigantic, by being always ſeen indiſtinctly, as through a miſt, or rather a fluttering air. In compariſon with this, every feeling that we have

have been accuſtomed to reſpect vaniſhes as inſignificant; and, adopting the Jeſuitical maxim, that "the great end ſanctifies every mean," this ſum of Coſmo political good is made to eclipſe or cover all the preſent evils which muſt be endured for it. The fact now is, that we are become ſo familiariſed with enormities, ſuch as brutality to the weaker ſex, cruelty to old age, wanton refinement on barbarity, that we now hear unmoved, accounts of ſcenes, from which, a few years ago, we would have ſhrunk back with horror. With cold hearts, and a metaphyſical ſcale, we meaſure the preſent miſeries of our fellow-creatures, and compare them with the accumulated miſeries of former times, occaſioned through a courſe of ages, and aſcribed to the ambition of princes. In this artificial manner are the atrocities of France extenuated; and we ſtruggle, and partly ſucceed, in reaſoning ourſelves out of all the feelings which link men together in ſociety. The ties of father, huſband, brother, friend,—all are abandoned for an emotion which we muſt even ſtrive to excite,—univerſal philanthropy. But this is ſad perverſion of nature. "He that loveth not his brother whom he hath ſeen, how can he love God whom he hath not ſeen?"

"Never ſince the beginning of the world, has true religion received ſo complete an acknowledgment of her excellence, as has been extorted from the fanatics who have attempted to deſtroy her. Religion ſtood in their way, and the wretch Marat, as well as the ſteady villain Weiſhaupt, ſaw that they could not proceed till they had eradicated all ſentiments of the moral government of the univerſe. Human nature, improved as it has been by Religion, ſhrunk from the taſks that were impoſed, and it muſt therefore be brutalized—The grand confederation was ſolemnly ſworn to by millions in every corner of France—but, as Mirabeau ſaid of the declaration of the Rights of Man, it muſt be made only the "Almanack of the bygone year"—Therefore Liquinio muſt write a book, declaring oaths to be nonſenſe, unworthy of Sans Culottes, and all religion to be a farce. Not long after, they found that they had ſome uſe for a God—but he was gone—and they could not find another. Their conſtitution was gone—and they have not yet found another. What is now left them on which they can depend for awing a man into a reſpect for truth in his judicial declarations?—what but the honour of a Citizen of France, who laughs at all engagements, which he has broken again and again? Religion has taken off with her every ſenſe of human duty. What can we expect but villainy from an Archbiſhop of Paris and his chapter, who made a public profeſſion that they had been playing the villains for many years, teaching what they thought to be a bundle of lies? What but the very thing which they have done, cutting each other's throats? Have not the enlightened citizens of France applauded the execution of their fathers! Have not the furies of Paris denounced their own children?—But turn your eyes from the horrifying ſpectacle, and think on your own noble deſcent and alliance. You are not the accidental productions of a fatal chaos, but the work of a Great Artiſt, creatures that are cared for, born to noble proſpects, and conducted to them by the plaineſt and moſt ſimple precepts, "to do juſtly, to love mercy, and to walk humbly before God," not bewildered by the falſe and fluttering glare of French philoſophy, but conducted by this clear, ſingle light, perceivable by all, "Do to others what you ſhould reaſonably expect them to do to you."

(*To be continued.*)

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An Eſſay on the Uſe of Mixed and Compreſſed Cattle Fodder, for feeding and fattening Horſes, Oxen, Cows, Sheep, Hogs and Pigs, particularly adapted for young Stock, and for Horſes and Cattle on Ship-board, in Camps, or in Garriſons. Containing directions for preparing Fodder, and Tables of the Expence, Weight, and Quantity neceſſary for the ſeveral Kinds of Horſes, &c. Alſo Tables for calculating the Quantity of Hay, &c. neceſ-

fary to provide for any number of Horſes and other Cattle, for one Day, to any Length of Time, By S. Lawſon, No 9, Tower Dock, who prepares and furniſhes the Fodder in any Quantity. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Sewed. *Richardſon.*—Many of the topics of this pamphlet are uſeful, and the hints given may be followed with ſucceſs; but, when the writer talks of making a kind of hay out of the halum of potatoes, he ſurely does not conſider the great quantity of ſap which the ſtalks of potatoes contain, and the impoſſibility of procuring ſun-beams enough, in the months of October and November, to dry them for the purpoſe of ſtacking; and when he farther recommends that cattle ſhould be fed with the tops or tender branches of fir-trees, he does not recollect that few gentlemen would approve of having their plantations deſtroyed in order to feed their cattle, when they can be maintained without it. Such hints ſmell of the cockney; and the countryman will be apt to ſcratch his head and laugh at them.

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POETRY.

POETRY.

FOR THE SCOTS MAGAZINE.

THE GARB OF NEW GAUL.

By E. S. J.

Author of "William and Ellen."

YE mighty bards with lofty fouls inſpir'd,
Who ſung of old, on rugged Scotia's coaſt,
To valorous deeds her warlike chiefs inſpir'd,
The bloody lion mark her conquering hoſt.
Who by dint of brav'ry,
Withſtood the chains of ſlav'ry,
Rouz'd by the blaſt, ye cry'd avaſt;
To England's arts and knav'ry.

But now, ah me! no hallow'd bardie ſings,
And Scotia's ſons are lifeleſs, dowff, and wae,
The hand no more explores the thund'ring ſtrings,
To wake our warriors from their homes away.
Who by dint of brav'ry,
Withſtood the chains of ſlav'ry,
Rouz'd by the blaſt, they cry'd avaſt,
To England's arts and knav'ry.

Thy ſons, O Gallia, ſtung with noble fire,
Indignant burſt the mighty tyrant's yoke;
But ah! your hearts have felt a pang more dire,
For anarchy uprears the fatal ſtroke.
Since firſt by dint of brav'ry,
They burſt the chains of ſlav'ry,
They blew the blaſt, and cry'd avaſt,
To Europe's arts and knav'ry.

And are thy ſons, O Scotia, drench'd in ſleep?
Arouze to arms, beſtride your native laws,
Or ſhall your widows and your orphans weep,
And curſe your courage as the cruel cauſe.
Who once by dint of brav'ry,
Withſtood the chains of ſlav'ry,
Rouz'd by the blaſt, they cry'd avaſt,
To England's arts and knav'ry.

Rouze, rouze ye rugged ſons of heathy hills,
Advance, advance your native courage bold,
The mighty deed the inſpiring annals fills,
And unborn ſons ſhall glow to hear it told.
Who by dint of brav'ry,
Withſtood the chains of ſlav'ry,
Who blew the blaſt, and cry'd avaſt;
To *Gallish* art and knav'ry.

LINES,

Suggeſted by a Sketch of a Romantic Scene in Argyleſhire.

THY pencil Wood can well expreſs
Theſe varied forms of nature's dreſs,
The ſmiling vale, the airy ſteep,
The tumbling ſtream, the hoary deep,
Whoſe waters now tumult'ous roar,
Now ſlowly ſeek the ſilent ſhore.

But could thy mimic art array,
(The forms which yonder ſcenes diſplay)
Benevolence with brow ſerene,
And tenderneſs of gentleſt mien;
Sweet innocence with lovely wile,
And beauty's all ſubduing ſmile.

Theſe forms might grace a Titian's ſkill
Nor could Drumjarig *, heath clad hill,
With images more pleaſing fill.
When from its ſummit tow'ring high,
Delighted was the wand'ring eye,
'Mong iſles on diſtant iſles that riſe,
'Till ocean melts the weſtern ſkies.

For can the nobleſt landſcape ſhew
Such charms as Friendſhip's ſacred glow,
What forms inanimate can vie
With mild Sabina's ſoft reply?
Can all the tints of light and ſhade
Compare with Delia, blooming maid?

Why then aſcend yon Alpine height,
With diſtant proſpects ſtrain the ſight,
Lo pleaſure beckons to the plain,
Where fairer charms and objects reign,
For love and joy and beauty dwell,
In yonder ſweet romantic dell.

EBUDENSIS.

* A very high hill, whence may be ſeen the greater part of the weſtern Archipelago.

SONG,

Written and Sung by one of the Royal Edinburgh Highland Volunteers, *after dinner, among a large party of the privates of that corps, in celebration of Admiral Duncan's Victory over the Dutch fleet.*

Dread ye a foe? Diſmiſs that ill dread;
'Tis death with hoſtile ſtep theſe ſhores to tread;
Safe in the love of Heaven, an ocean flows
Around our realm, a barrier from the foes.
Hom. Od. b. 6.

Tune.—"Fy, let us a' to the bridal."

NAE mair need we ſigh whan we reckon
An' think on the days o' langſyne,
Whan bauld Scottiſh heroes ſae doughty,
Wi' laurels o' valour did ſhyne:
For DUNCAN, a true Scottiſh callant,
Wha lang has been thirſting for fame,
Has yerkit our faes in a toolie,
And prov'd himſel worthy the name.

The Frenchmen, thae ill-deedy bodies,
Wha never war found at the bane,
Wi' hearts maiſt as black as a kettle,
An' o' their auld tricks unco fain;
Wi' fleechin' an Hornie's aſſiſtance,
Gart heavy-a—'d Dutchmen agree
Their ſhips a' wi' haſte to untether,
An' meet EDIE DUNCAN at ſea:—

But

But fo'k little ken, when they travel,
What luckleſs miſhaps may befa'
Or the Dutchmen wad ne'er been ſae doitet
As venture frae Holland ava';
For DUNCAN, ſae wylie an' cunnin',
Lay watching the time to begin,
Then bellyflaught bang'd in upo' them,
An' gi'ed them a weel licket ſkin.

Wi' legs ſnapped aff—broken noddles—
(My ſegs, 'twas a ſad revel'd pirn;)
The Dutchmen endeavour'd to rin for't,
Lut fand themſells ſnibb'd in a girn!
They lookit like gryces new ſticket,
When ſiccan miſhanters they ſaw,
An' heartily damn'd the French vermin,
Wha' o' them had made a cat's paw.

Yet Frenchmen (wha'll ne'er be tongue-tacket)
Blaw awa' at an unco degree;
Again 'bout invaſion they blether,
An' ſwear they'll be here in a wee;
But e'en let them yammer an' ettle,
Britannia laughs at their ſcheme;
She has tars wha are kings o' the ocean,
An' Volunteer birkies at hame.

Whan Scotia's ſhield, o'er her mountains,
Sae terribly ſounds the alarm *,
Her Sons, looking forward to glory,
Ruſh bravely, to guard her frae harm!
'Mang the lave o' her truſty defenders,
Whaſe praiſe weel deſerves to be ſung,
There's Campbells, a race lang reſpeckit,
Frae Dermid †, great warrior! ſprung:—

Eik Fergusſon, Dewar, an' Fraſer,
Buchanan, wha ſeek Scotia's weal,
M'Dougall (the fam'd Lord o' Lorn ‡)
M'Nab an' M'Kenzie, ſae leal;
Wi' Gordon, M'Leod, an' M'Donald,
Wha'll ſtand, but will ne'er turn awa';
An', boldly to lead us to honour,
See Murray, the Chief o' us a'!

Yes! we ha'e our bauld Highland laddies,
Wi' bannets ſet briſkly a-jee,
Whaſe love for their country's ſae heſtit,
Before they forſake her they'll dee!
Look round here! in ilka Scotch boſom
A flame for Auld Scotia does burn;
A flame which nae daſtardly traitor,
Nor dangers, nor death can o'erturn!

---

* This is an alluſion to the cuſtom the ancient Caledonian Chiefs had of ſtriking their ſhields, to call the people together, on the approach of danger.

† A hero celebrated by Oſſian, from whom the Campbells take their pedigree.——Vide Smith's Gal. Ant.

‡ The M'Dougalls were, in ancient times, a powerful clan, the Chiefs of which were, for a conſiderable period, dignified with the title of Lord of Lorn.

A TOWN AND COUNTRY LIFE CONTRASTED.

WRITTEN BY CAPT. MORRICE AND MR HEWARDINE.

IN London I never know what to be at—
Enraptur'd with this and tranſported with that;
I'm wild with the ſweets of Variety's plan—
And life ſeems a bleſſing too happy for man!
But the Country—(Lord bleſs us!) ſets all matters right,—
So calm and compoſing from morning to night,
Oh, it ſettles the ſtomach, when nothing is ſeen
But an aſs on a common, a gooſe on a green!

In London how eaſy we viſit and meet!—
Gay pleaſure's the theme, and ſweet ſmiles are our treat;
Our morning's a round of good-humour'd delight—
And we rattle in comfort and pleaſure all night!

In the Country how pleaſant our viſits to make
Thro' ten miles of mud, for formality's ſake;
With the coachman in drink and the moon in a fog,
And no thought in our head but a ditch or a bog!

In London, if folks ill together are put,
A *Bore* may be roaſted, a *Quiz* may be cut,
In the Country your friends would feel angry and ſore,
Call an old maid a *Quiz*, or a parſon a *Bore*.

In the Country you're nail'd, like a pale in your park,
To ſome ſtick of a neighbour cramm'd into the ark;
Or, if you are ſick, or in fits tumble down,
You reach death ere the doctor can reach you from town.

I've heard that how love in a cottage is ſweet
When two hearts in one link of ſoft ſimpathy meet:
I know nothing of that; for, alas, I'm a ſwain
Who requires, I own it, more links to my chain!

Your jays and your magpies may chatter on trees,
And whiſper ſoft nonſenſe in groves if they pleaſe;
But a houſe is much more to my mind than a tree!
And, for groves—oh, a fine grove of chimneys for me!

In the ev'ning you're ſcrew'd to your chairs fit to ſit,
All ſtupidly yawning at ſixpenny whiſt;
And tho' win or loſe, 'tis as true as 'tis ſtrange,
You've nothing to pay—the goods folks *have no change*!

But, for ſinging and piping your time to engage,
You've cock and hen bullfinches coop'd in a cage;
And what muſic in nature can make you ſo feel
As a pig in a gate ſtuck, or knife-grinder's wheel!

I grant, if in fiſhing you take much delight,
On a bank you may ſhiver from morning to night;
And, tho' bleſt with the patience that Job had of old,
The devil a thing do you catch but a *cold*!

Yet, 'tis charming to hear, juſt from boarding-ſchool come,
A tit-up tune up an old family ſtrum:
She'll play *God ſave the King* with an excellent tone,
With the ſweet variation of *Old Bob and Joan*!

But, what tho' your appetite's in a weak ſtate,
A pound at a time they will puſh on your plate:---
'Tis true, as to health you've no cauſe to complain;
For they'll drink it, God bleſs 'em, *again and again.*

Then in town let me live, and in town let me die;
For in truth I can't reliſh the country---not I.
If I muſt have a villa in London to dwell,
O, give me the ſweet ſhady ſide of Pall Mall.

THE NEGOTIATION AT LISLE.

OFFICIAL DOCUMENTS LAID BEFORE BOTH HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT.

No 1.—Official Note, Lord Grenville to the Miniſter for Foreign Affairs of the French Republic.

THE ſignature of the preliminaries of a peace, the concluſion of which is to put an end to the continental war, appears to afford to the Governments of Great Britain and France, a natural opportunity and new facilities for the renewal of pacific negotiations between them: A part of the obſtacles, which might have retarded this ſalutary work, no longer exiſting; and the intereſts to to be treated of, being, after this event, neither ſo extenſive nor ſo complicated as they were before.

The Court of London, always deſirous of employing ſuch means as are beſt calculated to contribute to this object, ſo intereſting to the happineſs of the two nations, is unwilling to omit renewing to the French Government the aſſurance of the continuance of its diſpoſitions on this ſubject. And the underſigned is authoriſed to propoſe to the Miniſter for Foreign Affairs, to enter without delay, and in ſuch manner as ſhall be judged the moſt expedient, upon the diſcuſſion of the views and pretenſions of each party for the regulation of the preliminaries of a peace, which may be definitively arranged at the future Congreſs.

As ſoon as the form of this negotiation ſhall be agreed upon, the Britiſh Government will be ready to concur in it, by taking, on its part, ſuch meaſures as are the moſt proper for accelerating the re-eſtabliſhment of public tranquility. (Signed) *Grenville.*

Weſtminſter, June 1. 1797.

No 2.—Official Note, the Miniſter for Foreign Affairs to Lord Grenville.

The underſigned Miniſter for Foreign Affairs, of the French Republic, loſt no time in laying before the Executive Directory, the Note which was tranſmitted to him on the 1ſt of June, (O. S.) by Lord Grenville, in the name of his Britannic Majeſty. He is directed to anſwer it.

The Executive Directory ſees with ſatisfaction, the deſire which the Cabinet of St James' expreſſes to put an end, at length, to the calamities of war. It will receive with eagerneſs the overtures and propoſals which ſhall be made to it by the Court of England.

The Executive Directory deſires, withſtanding, that the negotiations ſhould be ſet on foot at once for a definitive treaty. This proceeding appears to the Directory preferable to a Congreſs, of which the reſult muſt be remote, and which does not correſpond with the ardent deſire that it has to re-eſtabliſh, as quickly as poſſible, peace between the two powers. (Signed) *Ch. Delacroix.*

Paris, 16th Prairial, 5th year of the French Republic, one and indiviſible, June 4. 1797.

No

No 3.—Official Note, Lord Grenville to the Miniſter for Foreign Affairs.

The Court of London has received, with the greateſt ſatisfaction, the aſſurances of the diſpoſitions of the Executive Directory to entertain with eagerneſs the pacific overtures of Great Britain, as well as of its deſires to re-eſtabliſh, as ſoon as poſſible, peace between the two powers.

Anxious to contribute to it in every thing which can depend upon itſelf, the Britiſh Government will not delay to ſend to Paris, or to ſuch other place upon the Continent, as may be agreed upon, a Miniſter to treat and conclude with the Plenipotentiary who ſhall be appointed by the Executive Directory.

The underſigned is directed to deſire to know the wiſh of the Directory as to the place of the negotiation, in order that a ſpeedy determination may be taken here upon that ſubject; and to requeſt the Miniſter for Foreign Affairs to ſend him, without delay, the neceſſary paſſports, to enable the King's Plenipotentiary to repair immediately for his deſtination. The queſtion of ſigning preliminary or definitive articles will neceſſarily depend upon the progreſs and turn of the negotiations, to which, on the part of Great Britain, will be brought the moſt ſincere deſire for the ſpeedy re-eſtabliſhment of peace.

(Signed) *Grenville.*

Weſtminſter, June 8. 1797.

Note 3.—Official Note, the Miniſter for Foreign Affairs to Lord Grenville.

The Executive Directory of the French Republic has ſeen with ſatisfaction, by the official note of Lord Grenville, dated June 8th, (O. S.) that the Court of London ſhews itſelf diſpoſed to ſet on foot, without delay, the negotiation for which it has lately made an overture. Filled with the ſame eagerneſs, convinced the intentions of the Britiſh Government are ſuch as it deſcribes them, the Directory has directed the underſigned Miniſter for Foreign Affairs to tranſmit to Lord Grenville the neceſſary paſſports for a Miniſter, furniſhed with full powers for the purpoſe of negotiating a definitive and ſeparate treaty of peace with the French Republic.

The Executive Directory has fixed upon the commune of Liſle as the place of meeting for the reſpective Plenipotentiaries.

(Signed) *Ch. Delacroix.*

Paris, 23d Prairial, 5th year of the French Republic, June 11. 1797.

No 5.—*Liberty, Equality.——Fraternity, Union.*

In the name of the French Republic.

To all Officers, civil and military, charged to maintain public order in the different departments of France, and to make the French name reſpected abroad.

Allow to paſs freely

furniſhed with the full powers of his Britannic Majeſty, for the purpoſe of negotiating, concluding, and ſigning a definitive and ſeparate Treaty of Peace with the French Republic, Native of, &c. &c.

going to Liſle, Department of the North, the place appointed for the negotiation,

without giving or ſuffering any hindrance to be given to him.

This paſſport ſhall be in force for decades only.

Given at Paris, the 23d Priarial, 5th year of the Republic, one and indiviſible. (Signed)

The Miniſter of Foreign Affairs, *Ch. Delacroix.*

By the Miniſter, *T. Cuiradet.*

No 6.—Official Note, Lord Grenville to the Miniſter for Foreign Affairs.

The underſigned has received from the Miniſter for Foreign Affairs of the French Republic his official note, with the paſſports which accompanied it.

The Court of London willingly accepts the propoſal of the French Government with reſpect to the place of negotiation, and conſents that Liſle ſhall be appointed as the place of meeting for the reſpective Plenipotentiaries: It being always underſtood, that the King's Plenipotentiary ſhall have liberty to diſpatch his couriers directly from Liſle to Dover, by way of Calais; and that the Engliſh veſſels, appointed for keeping up his communication, ſhall be allowed freely to go into, and come out of the port of Calais, and to paſs in perfect ſafety between that city and Dover.

With reſpect to the paſſports, the underſigned finds himſelf under the neceſ-

ſity

fity of remarking, that the terms in which this inſtrument is drawn up, differ from the uſual form, by the particular deſcription, which is inſerted in them, of the nature and extent of the powers, and of the miſſion of the King's Plenipotentiary.

This new form appears liable to produce, in many inſtances, conſiderable inconveniences; and, according to the terms uſed in this particular inſtance, it would have the diſadvantage of not anſwering exactly to the powers and the miſſion of the Miniſter in queſtion.

His full powers, drawn in the uſual form, will include every caſe; and without preſcribing to him any particular mode of negotiation, will give him the moſt unlimited authority to conclude any articles or treaties, whether preliminary or definitive, as might beſt conduce to the ſpeedy re-eſtabliſhment of peace, which is the ſole object of his miſſion.

But the Court of London does not, by any means, make a point of concluding a preliminary treaty, and would prefer only that mode, whatever it may be, which ſhall be found the beſt calculated to accelerate the concluſion of peace.

The King's Plenipotentiary then will be equally ready, and authoriſed to begin the negotiation without delay, upon either footing; upon the footing of a preliminary treaty—or ſhould ſuch continue to be the wiſh of the Directory, upon that of a definitive treaty.

As to what regards the queſtion of a ſeparate treaty—there would be no objection to ſettling, by a treaty of this kind, whatever relates to the reſpective intereſts of France and of Great Britain, as has been uſually the practice in ſimilar caſes: But the King cannot allow any doubt to ſubſiſt, as to his intention of providing for what is due to the intereſts of his ally, her Moſt Faithful Majeſty. And in purſuance of the ſame principles, his Majeſty will not refuſe to enter into ſuch explanations, with regard to the intereſts of Spain and Holland, as may appear neceſſary for the re eſtabliſhment of peace.

After this frank and preciſe explanation, the Britiſh Government is perſuaded, that the Directory will not delay to tranſmit to them a paſſport, for the Britiſh Plenipotentiary and his ſuite, in the uſual form, and ſuch as was ſent in the month of October laſt, for the miſſion with which Lord Malmeſbury was then charged.

In this expectation, and for the ſake of avoiding all delay, his Majeſty has already made choice of the ſame Miniſter to repreſent him on this important occaſion. And the underſigned is charged to inquire on what day the French Plenipotentiary will be at Liſle, in order that Lord Malmeſbury may arrive there at the ſame time. (Signed)

Grenville.

Weſtminſter, June 17. 1797.

No 7.—Official Note, the Miniſter for Foreign Affairs to Lord Grenville.

The underſigned Miniſter for Foreign Affairs has laid before the Directory, immediately upon its receipt, the official note addreſſed to him, by Lord Grenville, dated June 17. 1797. (O. S.) He loſes no time in replying to it, according to the orders which he has received.

The Directory, partaking moſt ſincerely in the pacific ſentiments which his Britannic Majeſty announces, and wiſhing to bring the negotiation as quickly as poſſible to a happy iſſue, perſiſts in requiring that the reſpective Plenipotentiaries ſhall begin immediately, upon their meeting, to treat of a definitive treaty. The Directory accepts, with ſatisfaction, the conſent of his Britannic Majeſty upon the ſubject, expreſſed in the note of Lord Grenville.

The Directory conſents that his Britannic Majeſty ſhall make, by his Plenipotentiaries, ſuch propoſals or ſtipulations as he ſhall think proper for her Moſt Faithful Majeſty, as, in return, the Plenipotentiaries of the Republic will do for their allies, his Catholic Majeſty and the Batavian Republic.

The Directory conſents that the negotiation ſhall be opened with Lord Malmeſbury. Another choice would, however, have appeared to the Directory to augur more favourably for the ſpeedy concluſion of peace.

The Directory requires that it ſhall be eſtabliſhed as a principle, that each Engliſh packet-boat, which ſhall have brought over either the Plenipotentiary or a courier, ſhall return, without delay, and ſhall not be allowed to make any ſtay. The Directory will give orders that a French packet-boat ſhall be furniſhed without delay, to each of the

couriers whom the Plenipotentiaries of his Britannic Majeſty ſhall diſpatch. The Directory deſires, at the ſame time, that the couriers ſhould not be ſent too frequently; the frequent ſending them having been one of the principal cauſes of the rupture of the former negotiation.

After the above explanation, it becomes unneceſſary to tranſmit to Lord Grenville a new paſſport; the reſtrictions which he apprehended were to be found in that which has been addreſſed to him being entirely done away.

The French Plenipotentiaries will have arrived at Liſle by the time at which Lord Malmeſbury can himſelf be there. (Signed)

Ch. Delacroix.

Paris, 2d Meſſidor, June 20. 1797.

No 8.—Official Note, Lord Grenville to the Miniſter for Foreign Affairs.

The underſigned has laid before the King the official note of the French Government, which he received the 23d of the preſent month.

As to the two firſt articles of this note, both parties are agreed. On this point, therefore, there was nothing to be added to the explanations already given; in conſequence of which explanations, Lord Malmeſbury will, without delay, proceed to Liſle, to enter into a negotiation with the French Plenipotentiaries for the completion of a definitive treaty. The remark of the Directory, upon the choice which his Majeſty has thought fit to make upon his Plenipotentiary, being certainly of a nature not to require any anſwer.

The Britiſh Government agrees to the arrangement propoſed for the packet-boats; provided that a French packet-boat ſhall be furniſhed regularly, and without the leaſt delay, for each courier which the Britiſh Plenipotentiary ſhall find it neceſſary to diſpatch: The exerciſe of his incontеſtible right in this reſpect being to be governed by his own diſcretion only, with a view to bringing the negotiation, with which he is charged, to a ſpeedy and ſucceſsful end.

With regard to the rupture of the laſt negotiation, the circumſtances and the motives are known to all Europe; and it is not at the moment of entering into a new pacific diſcuſſion that the Britiſh Government conceives it can be of any uſe to recal them to recollection.

Lord Malmeſbury will ſet out from London on the 30th of this month to proceed to Calais; from whence he will arrange his departure, according to the notification he may receive of the day on which the French Miniſters may reach Liſle. (Signed)

Grenville.

Weſtminſter, June 26. 1797.

No. 9.—Official Note, the Miniſter for Foreign Affairs to Lord Grenville.

The underſigned Miniſter for Foreign Affairs, loſt no time in laying before the Executive Directory the official note addreſſed to him by Lord Grenville, dated the 21ſt June (O. S.) 8th of the preſent month Meſſidor.

In anſwer to this note, he has the honour to declare to Lord Grenville, that the Plenipotentiaries, charged by the Directory, with the negotiation, are already aſſembled at Liſle, and that the conferences may be ſet on foot as ſoon as the Plenipotentiary of his Britannic Majeſty ſhall have arrived there. Proviſion has been made that there ſhall never be a want of packet-boats for the the couriers which he ſhall think proper to ſend to London.

The underſigned at the ſame time apprizes Lord Grenville, that a copy of this note will be delivered to Lord Malmeſbury, on his arrival at Calais, in order that there may be nothing to hinder his immediate departure for Liſle.

(Signed) *Ch. Delacroix.*

Paris, 11th Meſſidor, 5th year, June 29. 1797.

No 10.—Extract of a diſpatch from Lord Malmeſbury to Lord Grenville, dated Liſle, July 6. Thurſday, 8 P.M. 1797.

My Lord, Having had this morning my firſt conference with the French Plenipotentiaries, and having mutually exchanged our full powers, I think it my duty to diſpatch a meſſenger, in order that his Majeſty may have the earlieſt information of this circumſtance. My diſpatch however muſt be confined to this alone, as nothing whatever has yet paſſed relative to the negotiation itſelf.

No

No 11.—*Equality, Liberty.*—Extract from the Regiſters of the Deliberations of the Executive Directory.

Paris, the 30th Prairial, 5th year of the French Republic, one and indiviſible.

The Executive Directory, after having heard the report of the Miniſter for Foreign Affairs, decrees as follows:

The Citizens Letourneur, heretofore Member of the Executive Directory, Pleville le Pelley, and Maret, are authoriſed to negotiate with the Miniſter Plenipotentiary of his Britannic Majeſty, the treaty of peace to be concluded between the French Republic and Great Britain. The Directory gives them the neceſſary full powers for agreeing upon the ſigning the articles of the treaty to be made. They ſhall conform themſelves to the inſtructions which have been or ſhall be given to them by the Executive Directory, to whom they ſhall render an account of the progreſs and iſſue of the negotiation.

They are equally authoriſed, and under the ſame conditions, to ſtipulate for the allies of the Republic, his Catholic Majeſty, and the Batavian Republic.

The Citizen Colchen, appointed Secretary General to the French Legation, is authoriſed to aſſiſt at the conferences, to afford the information which ſhall be required of him, and to take a note of what ſhall be agreed upon and ſettled.

The preſent decree ſhall not be printed for the preſent.

(A true copy.) The Preſident of the Executive Directory, *Carnot.*

By the Executive Directory, the Secretary General, *Lagarde.*

No 12.—Extracts of a diſpatch from Lord Malmeſbury to Lord Grenville, dated Liſle, July 11. 1797.

I had the honour in my laſt, by Brooks, of the 6th inſt. to inform your Lordſhip of my arrival here, of the manner in which I had been received, and of my having, in the uſual form, exchanged my full powers with the French Plenipotentiaries.

On Friday the 7th at noon, we held our ſecond conference.

I opened this ſecond conference with the French Plenipotentiaries, by ſaying, that I myſelf had no obſervations to make on their full powers, which appeared to be conformable to thoſe uſually given by the Directory to their Plenipotentiaries, and of courſe muſt be conſidered as ſufficient for the purpoſes expreſſed in them; that I, however, had tranſmitted them by a meſſenger to my Court, and reſerved to myſelf the right of communicating any objections or remarks which I might receive by the return of my meſſenger, relative to them.

M. Le Tourneur, to whom, as Preſident of the Commiſſion, I addreſſed myſelf, replied, that they had taken preciſely the ſame ſtep as myſelf, that they conſider the full powers I had given in, as in due form, and ſufficient; but that they alſo reſerved to themſelves the ſame right, in regard to inſtructions they might receive from the Directory on this ſubject, as I had claimed in regard to my Court.

To this, of courſe, I aſſented.

On Saturday, the 8th inſtant, I gave in the *projet* preciſely as I had received it from your Lordſhip; a copy of which (N. as it is tranſlated into French, I think it my duty to incloſe.

One of the French Plenipotentiaries propoſed that ſome time ſhould be given them to take the propoſals I had made into conſideration, and begged of me, merely for the ſake of accuracy, and to help their memory, that I would be good enough either to let M. Colchen put down on paper, or myſelf ſend them a note, containing the words with which I wiſhed the articles left in blanks to be filled up. I readily acquieſced in the latter mode, and immediately on my return ſent them the incloſed note (B).

On Sunday evening I received the incloſed note (C) from the French Plenipotentiaries, and in conſequence of it went to the propoſed conference yeſterday.

One of the French Plenipotentiaries informed me on the ſubject of the *projet* I had given them, and the note with which I had accompanied it, that as theſe papers contain many points on which their inſtructions did no enable them to anſwer, they had, after having given them a very ſerious attention, ſent them, with ſuch obſervations as they had thought it their duty to make on them, to the Directory, and that the moment they received an anſwer, they would communicate it to me. But that in the mean while, not to delay the progreſs of the negotiation, they wiſhed that ſeveral points which he termed infiniated, but which, though not referred to in our *projet*, were, he ſaid, inſeparably con-

nected with the general ſubject of peace, might be diſcuſſed and got rid of now if I had no objection, and that it was with this view they had requeſted me to meet them. On my not expreſſing any diſapprobation to this mode of proceeding, *one of the French Plenipotentiaries* began by ſaying, that in the preamble of the treaty, the title of the King of France was uſed: that this title they contended could no longer be inſiſted on; the abolition of it was in a manner eſſential to the full acknowledgement of the Republic; and that as it was merely titular as far as it related to his Majeſty, but quite otherwiſe in the ſenſe in which it applied to them, he hoped it would not be conſidered as an important conceſſion.

I informed him, that on all former occaſions a ſeparate article had been agreed to, which appeared to me to anſwer every purpoſe they required, and which it was my intention, as the treaty advanced, to have propoſed, as proper to make part of this.—The article (the firſt of the ſeparate ones in the treaty of 1795) was then read; but they objected to it, as not fully meeting their views. It was to the title itſelf, as well as to any right which might be ſuppoſed to ariſe from it, that they objected. I could ſcarce allow myſelf to treat this mode of reaſoning ſeriouſly. I endeavoured to make them feel that it was cavelling for a mere word; that it was creating difficulties where none exiſted; and that if all the French Monarchs, in the courſe of three centuries, had allowed this to ſtand in the preamble of all treaties and tranſactions between the two countries, I could not conceive, after its having been uſed for ſo long a period without any claim or pretenſion being ſet forth in conſequence of it, how it could now affect either the dignity, ſecurity, or importance of the Republic—that in fact ſuch titles have ever been conſidered as indefeaſible, and as memorials and records of former greatneſs, and not as pretenſions to preſent power—and I quoted the titles of the Kings of Sardinia and Naples, &c. as examples exactly in point. I argued however in vain. They treated it very gravely, and made ſo ſtrong a ſtand upon it, that I could not avoid taking it for reference, which I thought it better to do, than, feeling as I did at the moment, to puſh the converſation farther.

The ſecond inſulated point was a very material one indeed, and which, although it has been adverted to as a propoſal that might poſſibly be brought forward, I confeſs came upon me unexpectedly. It was to aſk either a reſtitution of the ſhips taken and deſtroyed at Toulon, or an equivalent for them. They grounded this claim on the preliminary declaration made by Lord Hood on his taking poſſeſſion of Toulon, and on the eight article of the declaration of the Committee of the Sections to him. They ſaid, peace they hoped was about to be re-eſtabliſhed; that his Majeſty, in acknowledging the Republic, admitted that a ſovereignty exiſted in the French Government: and of courſe, that the ſhips, held only as a depoſit by England till this legal authority was admitted, ought now to be reſtored. I replied, that this claim was ſo perfectly unlooked for, that it was impoſſible for me to have been provided for it in my inſtructions, and that I could therefore only convey my private ſentiments on it, which were, that they could not have deviſed a ſtep more likely to defeat the great end of our miſſion. *One of the French Plenipotentiaries* ſaid, that he ſincerely hoped not; that without a reſtitution of the ſhips, an equivalent might be found to effect the purpoſe deſired, ſince their great object was, that ſomething ſhould appear to prove that this juſt demand had not been overlooked by them, and was not left unſatisfied by us. I told him fairly, I did not ſee where this equivalent was to be found, or how it could be appreciated; and that conſidering the great advantages France had already obtained by the war, and thoſe ſhe was likely to obtain from the act of confederation I had already intimated his Majeſty was diſpoſed to make in order to reſtore peace, I was much ſurpriſed and deeply concerned for what I had heard. I truſted, therefore, that this very inadmiſſible propoſal would be withdrawn. They ſaid it was not in their power; and one of them, from a written paper before him, which he ſaid were his inſtructions, read to me words to the effect I have already ſtated.

Their third queſtion was as to any mortgage we might have upon the Low Countries, in conſequence of money lent to the Emperor by Great Britain. They wiſhed to know if any ſuch exiſted, ſince, as they had taken the Low Countries with all their incumbrances, they were to declare that they ſhould not conſider them-

themſelves bound to anſwer any mortgage given for money lent to the Emperor, for the purpoſe of carrying on war againſt them.

I told them, that, without replying to this queſtion, ſuppoſing the caſe to exiſt, the exception they required ſhould have been ſtated in their treaty with the Emperor, and could not at all be mixed up with ours; that if they had taken the Low Countries as they ſtood charged with *all* their incumbrances, there could be no doubt what theſe words meant; and that if no exception was ſtated in the firſt inſtance, none could be made with a retroactive effect.

The French Plenipotentiaries, however, were as tenacious on this point as on the other two; and as I found, to every argument I uſed, that they conſtantly oppoſed their inſtructions, I had nothing to do but to deſire that they would give me a written paper, ſtating their three claims, in order that I might immediately tranſmit it to your Lordſhip; and, on this being promiſed, our conference broke up.

Between four and five P. M. yeſterday, I received the incloſed note (D); and I have loſt no time, ſince it is in my power, in preparing to ſend away a meſſenger, as, independent of the diſagreeable ſubjects brought forward in this laſt conference, and which it is material ſhould be communicated without delay, I am anxious his Majeſty ſhould be informed of what has paſſed in general up to this day, as it may perhaps furniſh ſome ideas as to the poſſible event of the negotiation.

(*To be continued.*)

BRITISH PARLIAMENT.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

VOTE OF THANKS.

Nov. 8. *The Lord Chancellor*, quitting the woolſack, addreſſed himſelf to Lord Duncan. He ſaid, that that Houſe, in common with the people at large, feeling the eſſential ſervices which his Lordſhip had rendered his country, had not only come to a reſolution to tender him their unanimous thanks for his late brilliant victory, and to command him (the Chancellor) to communicate them, but alſo, to mark it the more ſtrongly, to order that the Houſe ſhould be ſummoned when that communication ſhould be made; a diſtinction that was without a precedent, though, in his opinion, not more ſingular than was merited; for to his uncommon attention, fortitude, and bravery, (qualities which could not be attributed to fortune) was this country moſt highly indebted; and he did not believe there was an individual in it who would not agree with him, that his Lordſhip was fully entitled to thoſe thanks which he had the honour now to deliver him; firſt, for his unwearied attention in watching the enemy for three ſucceſſive ſeaſons; ſecondly, for his manly conduct during the period when moſt of the forces under his command were in a ſtate of mutiny; and, laſtly, for his promptitude and bravery in attacking the enemy, and by which all their projects were defeated.

Lord Duncan replied, that, being unuſed to public ſpeaking, he ſhould not ſay much upon this occaſion, nor indeed, was he ſo inclined, would his feelings permit him to expreſs that gratitude he felt for the honour which had thus been conferred on him on the firſt day of his taking his ſeat in that Honourable Houſe. To the Noble Lord on the woolſack his particular thanks were due, for the handſome manner in which he had communicated that honour, and he ſhould ever hold them both in remembrance.

The Duke of Clarence moved, that the Lord Chancellor's ſpeech, and the Noble Lord's reply, ſhould be entered on the journals.—Ordered.

ADDRESS TO HIS MAJESTY ON THE NEGOTIATION WITH FRANCE.

Lord Grenville obſerved, that in bringing forward the reſolution he was about to propoſe, he was confident that it would be a waſte of their Lordſhips time, as well as of his own, to uſe many arguments to induce them to aſſent to it, as the papers on the table ſpoke too clearly for themſelves to need any elucidation from him; yet he ſhould but ill diſcharge his duty, if he did not ſhortly draw their attention to ſome leading points, becauſe the pledge he wiſhed them to give was not of a light and trivial nature, but one ſolemn in itſelf, and

which

which muſt not hereafter be departed from; yet in expreſſing his wiſh to have it paſs that Houſe unanimouſly, he hoped no Noble Lord would vote for it, without he could do ſo from his heart, on a thorough conviction of its propriety. He was confident that with regard to thoſe papers, there could be but one ſentiment; and if any Noble Lords had thought proper to abſent themſelves on this occaſion, though he had no buſineſs to inquire into the reaſon, he might conclude that it was becauſe even they thought the conduct of the French indefenſible, and that it was to them, and them alone, the continuation of the calamities of the war was to be attributed. Here his Lordſhip went over the former arguments made uſe of on this ſubject, dwelt with ſome ability on the topics of the Declaration, and paid ſeveral high compliments to the talents and integrity of Lord Malmeſbury.—At the time when there was the firſt reſemblance of the uſurping rulers of that diſtracted country taking the ſenſe of the people, all the world, his Lordſhip ſaid, rightly ſaw that ſenſe would be againſt the tyrannic ſyſtem which had plunged them into ſuch miſery; and ſo it proved, for the majority of thoſe returned to the Aſſembly were deſirous of repairing the evils which ſome of them had, through error, been induced to countenance, and to procure peace upon juſt and moderate terms. It was to defeat theſe good intentions, that the Directory cauſed the delay with us, and having ſucceeded, by a ſpecies of treachery without parallel, they inſtantly change their negotiators, revive a claim that had been abandoned for two months, and openly avow their hoſtile intentions, adding thereto, as if afraid we ſhould want firmneſs to refuſe their exorbitant demand, an order for Lord Malmeſbury to depart within a certain period, thereby rendering it impoſſible for him to obtain even our acquieſcence. After this, could it be pretended that the animoſity of this ſanguinary enemy was not levelled againſt the laws, conſtitution, and religion of this country; and if any thing was wanting to put that beyond a doubt, we had only to recur to their recent declaration, that their government and ours could not exiſt together. It was to ſupport this government that they were called upon, as well as to protect not only their own lives and fortunes, but the conſtitution itſelf, and the liberties of their fellow ſubjects. Hitherto we had been able to carry on this war by ordinary means; but ſince it was become of an extraordinary nature, extraordinary meaſures muſt be reſorted to. Yet, ſo far was he from deſpairing at our ſituation, that he was confident there were ſufficient reſources in the country, and that the difficulties we had experienced aroſe from their not having been reſorted to. The queſtion now was, whether we would maintain our honour and independence as a nation, or ſubmit all we held dear to the mercy of an inveterate foe, and that too at a moment when our arms ſhone with more ſplendour than ever they had done at any period of our hiſtory? He knew there could be but one opinion upon it, and therefore he ſhould ſubmit his reſolution with reverting to what he had ſaid at nearly the beginning of his ſpeech, namely, that he hoped no Noble Lord would give it his approbation, unleſs he was determined to abide by the pledge he ſhould thereby give. His Lordſhip then moved an Addreſs to his Majeſty, which in ſubſtance was,—"That the Houſe aſſured his Majeſty, that they had taken the papers which he had ordered to be laid before them, into the moſt ſerious conſideration, and, by ſo doing, they were convinced of the inſidious deſigns of our inveterate enemy, who evidently appeared to aim at the deſtruction of the laws, liberties, and conſtitution of this country; but, truſting to that Divine Providence by which we had hitherto been protected, they doubted not but we ſhould be enabled to defeat their deſigns: they were aware, that the exertions would require great energy, yet they pledged themſelves to his Majeſty, that they would ſupport his throne, and ſtand or fall with our religion, and the laws and liberties of our happy conſtitution."

Lord Darnley ſaid, he could not content himſelf with giving a ſilent vote upon the occaſion. He went into a ſpeech of ſome length, highly approving the conduct of his Majeſty's miniſters, repeating many of Lord Grenville's arguments, and agreeing with him, that we had nothing to fear; for France, with all her threats, could not tranſport an army without a navy.

The Addreſs was then agreed to, *nem. diſſ.*

Lord Grenville then moved, that it be com-

communicated to the Commons in a conference, and that they be requeſted to unite in the ſame.—Ordered.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Nov. 10. The order of the day for taking into conſideration the addreſs to his Majeſty, purſuant to the reſolution of yeſterday, and the ſaid addreſs as it came from the Lords, (for which ſee page 914.) together with the papers on which it was founded, being read,

Mr Dundas moved, that this Houſe do concur with their Lordſhips in that addreſs.

Sir J. Sinclair ſaid, he had an amendment to propoſe, and wiſhed to know if that was the proper time?

The Speaker informed him, that that was the proper period to make his motion.

Sir J. Sinclair then ſaid, that he would ſtate the reaſon which induced him to oppoſe part of the addreſs, to the general tenor of which he did not object; but to certain words and expreſſions in it, which had for their object to promote a continual war between this country and France; for, although a certain degree of rivalſhip and hoſtility always exiſted between the two nations, yet this country muſt make a peace with France ſome time or other. But the part of the addreſs which he objected to would have the effect of retarding or preventing ſo deſirable an event. He thought it neceſſary to expreſs his aſtoniſhment at the mean and humiliating manner in which Government carried on the late negotiation. He thought the miniſter who had been ſent from this country for that purpoſe, ſhould not have given in his plan until it was aſcertained whether the enemy, with whom he was about to treat, had a *contre-projet* ready to deliver. Inſtead of that, however, the negotiation was carried on in a manner the moſt degrading to the character of that Houſe that could be conceived; and ſuch as muſt lower this country to a degree from which ſhe would not be ſoon able to revive. It was ſaid, that it had not been the wiſh of France to make peace with this country. In anſwer to this aſſertion, he would obſerve, that the government of that country had received his Majeſty's ambaſſador and his propoſals, with a degree of readineſs that did not leave much room for ſuch a ſuppoſition; and after the Britiſh miniſter had been ordered to depart for freſh powers, they ſent a meſſage to him intimating a wiſh that he might return. If he thought that it was the wiſh of the French government, as it was aſſerted, to overturn the laws and conſtitution of this country, he would, without any heſitation, vote for the addreſs as it then ſtood. But he knew very well that the French were inveterate againſt this country, becauſe ſhe had been in the beginning inveterate and violent againſt them; and he believed we ſhould now be at peace with them, if we had let them alone. He would then propoſe to leave out certain parts of the addreſs, which, if it remained as it ſtood, would only ſerve to increaſe the animoſity between the two countries; and in the room of it to inſert words to the following effect:—"That the Houſe returned thanks to his Majeſty, for his endeavours to bring about a peace by means of the late negotiation: That when they conſidered the calamities to which nations in a ſtate of hoſtility were expoſed, they could not avoid deploring the war in which this country was at preſent engaged, by which ſuch heavy and enormous expences were incurred: That they truſted both nations would ſee the neceſſity of renewing the negotiation, in order to bring the war in which they were engaged to a ſpeedy termination: But that, if unfortunately theſe hopes ſhould not be realiſed, his Majeſty might rely on the attachment and ſupport of his faithful Parliament, as well in proſecution of the war, as in maintaining the conſtitution, the proſperity, and the eſſential intereſts of the country."

Lord Temple then roſe, and made his maiden ſpeech. He ſaid he could not give a ſilent vote on an occaſion ſo important as the preſent. He fully agreed with the addreſs, becauſe it was well adapted, and the words were well choſen; and he ſaw more danger in the probability of a peace than in the continuance of the war. There was no peace which could be made conſiſtent with the ſecurity of England, with a country incapable of maintaining the relations of peace and amity, and where the moderate party was forced to give way to Jacobiniſm and terror. All hopes of peace, therefore, with ſuch a government were gone. If, in the late negotiation, Great Britain had yielded to the

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enemy that which they demanded as the price of negotiation, we ſhould ſoon after have heard of other demands doubly degrading. As to a peace, we could not hope to have one until that country with which we are at war could boaſt of a government that was likely to laſt from one week to another, and under which a perſon in the office of governor might be ſecure of his exiſtence. A country that deſtroyed its government ſo often, was unworthy of being treated with. He therefore rejoiced in the failure of the late negotiation; becauſe he maintained, that even if it had led to the concluſion of a peace with France, we ſhould have had no ſecurity for the continuance of that peace. But the exertions of this country were fully equal to the conteſt; her reſources were abundant; and the diſpoſitions of the people were ſuch as to promiſe the moſt favourable proſpects of ſucceſs. He, for his part, ſpoke the ſentiments of a large and populous county which he had the honour to repreſent. He had every thing to riſk and to loſe in this conteſt, during which he would ſupport miniſters; he had a general retainer for doing ſo during the ſeſſion.

Mr Pitt—"Sir, having come to this Houſe with a firm perſuaſion that there never exiſted an occaſion in which ſtronger hopes could be entertained, or a juſter right could be founded, for the unanimity of the Houſe in concurring with the addreſs which has been read, I own that I feel conſiderable ſurpriſe at the ſpeech of the Noble Lord, my relation, and much more at that delivered by the Hon. Baronet over againſt me. I cannot by any means agree with the Noble Lord, in the ſtatements which he has made, but more particularly with thoſe in which he obſerves, that things have been carried too far, and that we have manifeſted too much condeſcenſion to the government of France. I cannot certainly ſubſcribe to any inference which in the ſmalleſt degree implies that we have concluded the negotiation. We have not concluded it—we carried it on to ever▸ poſſible length conſiſtent with the independence and intereſts of this country, and thoſe with whom we negotiated have concluded it. But tho' we carried it on as far as we could, and though we ſincerely lament and deplore the event, we are far from ſuffering our ſentiments on that occaſion to lead us to the other line of conduct recommended by the Hon. Baronet and ſome other gentlemen. We have the ſtrongeſt and moſt irreſiſtible cauſes for indignation, rather than humiliation, and we ſhould, indeed, be unworthy of poſſeſſing our deareſt rights, were we to bury our ſpirit and our feelings in unmanly reſignation. Before I enter into any particular points of the negotiation, let me firſt conſider what is the nature of the amendment which has been propoſed. The principal ground of that amendment is to deplore the miſeries of war, on the conſideration, that all war is calamitous and productive of miſery. Do I object to that principle in the latitude in which it is laid down?—No, Sir, it is impoſſible I ſhould. But I object to any inference that may be drawn from it, as directed againſt the exertions of this country to reſtore the bleſſings of peace. I object to it, becauſe the continuance of the calamities of war is owing to the conduct of the Executive Government of France, which has, by one continued and undeviating ſyſtem of trick, fraud, and ſtratagem, oppoſed the fair and honeſt buſineſs of candid negotiation. It is to the frantic government of France, that we are to attribute that black catalogue of human miſeries, of which a ſtate of warfare is ever productive. Is it then ſufficient to lament with the hon. gentleman thoſe woes, the continuance of which can only be aſcribed to others? Is it conſiſtent with the dignity, honour, and intereſts of a free and independent nation, to deplore, in a ſtrain of abject deſpondency, the evils originally produced, and ſtill extended, by the frantic rulers of the French nation? It would, indeed, be a wanton waſte of argument, to ſhew, that the miſeries inſeparable from war are to be imputed to them, and not to us. The papers which have been laid before, on the conduct of the negotiation, are in every perſon's hands, and let every man candidly determine to whom the continuation of war is to be imputed. Is there any man here prepared to deny, from the authentic documents which have been ſubmitted to us, that the rupture of the negotiation is to be attributed to the unwarrantable, exorbitant, and arrogant pretenſions of the enemy; to the implacable ſpirit and rooted inveteracy of the Executive Government of France againſt this country; and to the baſe trick, pal-

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try arts, and deceitful subterfuges of the men in power in that country? I shall, Sir, take the liberty of stating the grounds on which I entertain this opinion, tho' I must at the same time freely confess, that such a measure is hardly necessary. The Hon. Baronet fears, that if we adopt the language of the address, we shall create and perpetuate a system of horrid and endless animosity between the two countries. But I hold a language directly contrary. If the Government of France, acting against the known and acknowledged interests of the people of France, as well as against the rights of this country, persist in a system of war the most horrible, not only that has been practised, but that has ever been conceived, a system that has devastation for its immediate object, and annihilation for its ultimate issue; a system the most hideous, terrific, and destructive that ever stained the page of history, or debased the records of the world; the Hon. Baronet does great injustice to the people of France, to suppose that the continuance of such a system is a mode calculated to excite endless animosity, and perpetual hatred between them and the people of this country. It would, indeed, be a sad and melancholy consideration, if we were to attribute the origin and prosecution of so dreadful and destructive a warfare, to any thing but the present Government of France, which, in its wild, boundless, and insatiate ambition, and ferocity, desolates the world.—It is not, therefore, against the people of France, that we are called upon to declare our sentiments. No, Sir, we do not express a single word against the people of France in the address, nor is there to be found in his Majesty's declaration one syllable that can in the least tend to increase the animosity, of which the Hon. Baronet is so apprehensive, between both countries, which must one day be at peace. God grant that that day may soon arrive! But, Sir, allow me to ask, what is his Majesty's language? Here Mr Pitt read part of the Declaration, for which see p. 845. Having thus appealed to his Majesty's declaration, I wish to know what words, what terms can be found in the English language to express more clearly, more intelligibly, and more strongly, sentiments directly contrary to those which the Hon. Baronet has thought proper to impute to his Majesty's ministers? I think nothing can be more explicit, and more contradictory to the ideas which the Hon. Baronet wishes to impress on the House. Nothing is expressed against the people of France, it is against the rulers of the French people that the words are directed. I now repeat, and I beg to say, that I still agree with the sentiments expressed in the declaration, that represents his Majesty's readiness to conclude, even with that government, peace on the same moderate and equitable principles which he had before proposed. But while I refute the sentiments of the Hon. Baronet, which are, I must observe, completely refuted in his own speech, I must now refer to those entertained by the Noble Lord, and many others—that we ought not to make peace with the present rulers of France. I solemnly declare, that I entertain a very different opinion. It would be a conduct inconsistent with sound sense, repugnant to the true principles of policy, and an absurd hypocrisy to deny it. I certainly do not hesitate to declare, that I should see with pleasure the termination of a government which is founded in delusion, is supported by the restless spirit of innovation, and aims at nothing short of the utter destruction of every power that possesses the dignity and courage to oppose its ravages, and the execution of its projects. But, Sir, this is not the object of war; and I have no difficulty in saying, if our courage, our perseverance, a just sense of our most valuable rights, and the greatness of our resources, may enable us to make peace with that country, on terms that may keep us in a real state of national honour and independence, that may not taint our credit and our dignity, and that may be thought perfectly consistent with our safety; be the form of that government with which we treat what it may, peace, I must contend, is on such grounds a desirable peace, and is to be sought. But without these terms, which are necessary to secure to us every thing which we have a right to possess, there is nothing which we ought not to risk in a contest of such extreme importance. Without these terms, I will decidedly maintain, that peace would be in fact a base surrender of our safety and independence as a nation, of our tranquillity and happiness as individuals. It would be an abject capitulation of every consideration that constitutes the blessings

and comforts of society in the most interesting points of view. These, Sir, are the sentiments which I profess, and influenced by them I shape my conduct between the opposite opinions of the Noble Lord and Hon. Baronet. The Hon. Baronet says, that we commenced the negotiation without any proofs of sincerity on the part of the French government. I never believed that the government of France was sincere; but from the general and prevailing wish growing out of the public opinion in France, and which became predominant in that country in favour of peace, I did see a general inclination that induced me to think the Executive government would at length be compelled to act in union with the desire of the people. I was led to believe that a spirit of universal moderation, arising and encreasing in its effects every day, would succeed in checking the phrenzy of the government; that the unruly violence of the executive power would be tempered by wholesome moderation; that insatiable ambition would give way to the dictates of reason; and that even the phrenzy of those in power would be governed by the pressure of necessity. These, Sir, were the sentiments which I entertained. And the conduct to which the Executive government of France was driven in the course of the negotiation justified my opinion. They wished to throw upon us the odium of breaking it off. Even all the attempts and influence of the violent party in France were insufficient to break it off, and they were obliged to introduce and mix with the progress of the negotiation the lowest intrigues, and the most unwarranted subterfuges. They were reduced to the most absurd and contemptible shifts, and were even sunk so low as to treat with a certain degree of disrespect his Majesty's Plenipotentiary. Yet because he struggled against all these difficulties, with the laudable intention of obtaining the great end of negociation, we are now blamed by the hon. Baronet. We have, however, at last driven them to the acknowledgement of terms which they would not otherwise have disclosed, though the terms are altogether inadmissible. But if our object was to press France to know the conditions on which she might be willing to come to a pacification, and certainly that must have been an object of no inconsiderable magnitude, I must ask, was there any one way so good and so efficacious as to speak out ourselves, and, by disclosing our terms, require and call upon the rulers of France to furnish a counter-project, or at least conditions by which we might be enabled to form an idea of the extent of their views? We have done so, and a very material benefit has resulted from that conduct—We have shewn, in the most satisfactory manner, to all Europe, that our advances have not been treated as they should have been, on the part of the enemy. It is certainly true that the prior conduct of the French government had given sufficient grounds to entertain strong doubts of its sincerity; for Lord Malmesbury was dismissed, not upon any difference arising out of the discussion of an article of the treaty; not upon the disputed cession of any conquest which we had made from the allies of France; not upon any colonial considerations, or detached subject, but because he would not consent to terms by which we were commanded to give up every thing which we had taken from the allies of France, and were to get nothing ourselves. Such, I am concerned to observe, has been the fate of the second attempt to treat. (Here Mr Pitt stated the preliminaries that had been gone through relative to passports, &c.) Thus we may see, in the first part of the transaction, how the vindictive and implacable spirit of the government of France began to shew itself. His Majesty observed, on the subject of a separate peace, that his honour could not admit of any doubt to subsist as to his intention of providing for what was due to the interest of his ally, her Most Faithful Majesty the Queen of Portugal. He also agreed, that France should treat for Holland and Spain, in such a manner as might appear necessary for the re-establishment of peace. His Majesty's conduct in this respect, allow me, Sir, to observe, was unquestionably an exemplary instance of moderation. Yet, what was the result? The system of violence was not ripe, and the public spirit then predominant in France in favour of peace, caused the offer to be accepted for Portugal, while the Directory were, on their part, to treat for Spain and Holland. This business was mutually agreed to, and the pledge was respectively taken. Here I must entreat the attention of the House to the next circumstance that hap-

happened. When the firmness of his Majesty, his sincere desire to terminate the horrors of war, and his uniform moderation overcame the violence, and defeated the perfidious and deep laid designs of the members of the Executive government of France, they then had recourse to another expedient, an expedient not only the most unjustifiable, but the most absurd and ridiculous that could be devised. They adverted to the rupture of the former negotiation, as if it were a topic that was fit to be agitated: and what cannot be characterized too pointedly, this strange and unartificial but malicious reference, was accompanied by a personal imputation of his Majesty's Ambassador, which certainly came with a peculiar bad grace, as in the ample field of talents which his Majesty's dominions happily furnish, it would indeed be difficult to find a person in every respect equally accomplished and calculated to promote the success of the important undertaking with which the Noble Lord had been entrusted. At length the conference opened at Lisle, and the respective powers of the Plenipotentiaries being exchanged, these of Lord Malmesbury were found complete and full by the Plenipotentiaries of the Directory on the spot, and were afterwards approved of by the government, though at a considerable distance, in consequent to that period they were objected to by the same government. Yet notwithstanding this solemn acknowledgment of his Lordship's powers, what I am confident, Sir, never before happened in any diplomatic proceeding, took place in this stage of the business: His Lordship's dispatching couriers was objected to, though the same liberty was exercised by the Ministers of the Directory; and what was still more extraordinary, when the powers of the French Plenipotentiaries were examined, they were found limited on the face of them, and more confined than ours were at first. The Hon. Baronet appears to entertain doubts of the sincerity of these proceedings, yet his Majesty's sincerity was plain and could not be mistaken. He authorized his Ambassador to deliver the first project, and we were entitled to expect that an answer to it would have been put into our hands in the course of 24 hours. This expectation seems to me to have been highly justified, and I state my reasons for it on two specific grounds. First, Sir, on the ground that the Directory eagerly insisted on the fruitive treaty as a short mode of attending peace, instead of any other, which, as it stood, did not correspond with the avowed desire it had to establish peace between the two powers. And secondly, on the strong grounds, that we had nothing to ask, and every thing to give; and it was incumbent on them to have stated what sacrifices we were to make. But what, Sir, was the neglect we found by his Majesty's Ambassador? The most satisfactory, the clearest, and what made every consideration was entitled, on the principles of candour, consulting, and justice, to have been treated at least with respect. Yet what have we heard with respect to this project? What has been industriously circulated throughout Europe, and what have we heard in England? Truth arising from the most violent papers of the French Directory have been published, by degrees, to the greatest surprise, that it was not false, deceive, or just. Calumny of the most despicable kind was fabricated at second hand to asperse the designs of his Majesty's Ministers, and every undermining effort was resorted to, for the purpose of prejudicing the public mind against the candour with which it was undeniably drawn up. While we stated in our proposals the utmost extent of our views, we left them open to modification. As to the nature of the terms which we proposed, this is not the time, nor are the present circumstances such that we can prudently decide on what grounds peace is to be precisely concluded. I do not, Sir, attempt to know, to argue, what would have been our ultimate decision, but I only argue and put the question—were not the terms contained in the project delivered by Lord Malmesbury frank, clear, and perfectly intelligible? Were they not a signal proof of our sincerity, and an unquestionable pledge of our moderation? What did we not offer to renounce? Did we not offer to renounce Martinique, Tobago, St Lucia, Pondicherry, the Factory of Chandernagore, the rights of fishery on the coasts of the Island of Newfoundland, and in the Gulph of St Lawrence, the Islands of St Pierre and Miquelon? And here, Sir, let me intreat the House to consider for what were these renunciations to be made? For nothing!—And

to whom? To a power which never met our fleets but to add a new triumph to our glorious catalogue of victories, and to ſwell the melancholy liſt of its own defeats, and its repeated captures—to a power whoſe military exertions, even by land, never met us ſingly without gracing our proweſs with new laurels—to a power whoſe commerce is unheard of, whoſe navy is annihilated, whoſe manufactures are deſtroyed, and whoſe credit has periſhed? Such was the ſituation of the country to whom theſe important conceſſions were offered. Spain next falls under our conſideration; and what were our claims on Spain? What propoſals did we make to a power which only entered into the war to tarniſh whatever glory ſhe might have poſſeſſed, and to ſuccumb under indelible proofs of her diſgrace? We aſked Trinidad for that part of St Domingo which is in our poſſeſſion. It is not my intention to enter into the juſtice of that demand, but in point of compenſation it certainly could not be objectionable. With reſpect to Holland, we offered to return to the Dutch every thing that was valuable in point of commercial conſequence, and we only retained poſſeſſions that could not be advantageous to them in a political view, but which, if reſtored, would doubtleſs enable their new ally, France, to carry on and purſue, to the utmoſt extent, her plan of ſubjugation, not only againſt the Dutch poſſeſſions in the Eaſt, but alſo againſt the Britiſh poſſeſſions in the ſame quarter. Thoſe, Sir, were the principal ſubjects delivered by his Majeſty's Plenipotentiary. Can any man be ſo bold as to maintain, that we did not diſplay the moſt ſignal inſtance of moderation in terms ſo conciliating; and what muſt appear, to candid minds, ſo ſatisfactory? Was the war carried on ſo unſucceſsfully by us, as to induce us to make more ample conceſſions? Look at the parties in the negotiation. Look at their reſpective means; look at their claims, and the juſt pretenſions of both ſides! Were theſe proofs of his Majeſty's ſincerity ſuch as not to be deemed worthy of the notice of the enemy? Were they not at leaſt entitled to an anſwer, or to a *contre projet*, more particularly as that was a meaſure which had been agreed to before? No, Sir; no ſuch thing took place. Couriers were diſpatched by the Executive government of France to Spain and Holland, under the ſhallow pretence of conſulting their allies, but with the real deſign of carrying on the farce. But what was the next ſtep in the negotiation? The firſt attempt of the Directory to negotiate cannot poſſibly eſcape our obſervation. They who, in the firſt inſtance aſked, preſſed, and reiterated their ardent deſire for a definitive peace, cautiouſly and ſtudiouſly delayed the conſideration of it; they led the conferences to vague and ſecondary points. They inſiſted that his Majeſty ſhould reſign the title of King of France, a hardneſs feather at moſt, which his anceſtors had ſo long worn on their crown: They demanded reſtitution of the ſhips taken at Toulon, or a compenſation; and a renunciation of any mortgage which this country might poſſeſs on the Netherlands, for the loan guaranteed to the Emperor. The next point which occurred is of a nature which it would be difficult to dwell upon. We were called upon to ſubſcribe as a preliminary, that we were prepared to give up every thing we had acquired during the war. Need I argue the inadmiſſibility of ſuch a demand? Need I addreſs myſelf to any ſet of men to prove its diſgraceful nature, its arrogant pretenſion, or the infamy of acceding to it? Can there be any man in this country to whom the argument would be neceſſary? Such a preliminary could not be admitted by any man who was not prepared to adore, in proſtrate baſeneſs, the idol of French power—who was not ready to proſtitute the dignity and honour of his country at the feet of France—to ſubmit to the burden of accumulating infamy, and of ſtill more degrading homage—of demands ſtill more ignominious—to cancel at once all the honours of the Britiſh name, and to overthrow the foundations of Britiſh greatneſs. His Majeſty had no heſitation in refuſing to comply with ſuch unwarrantable and inſolent demands. The French Directory, however, had not yet acquired, in their opinion, the power of adhering to all the extravagance of their demands, nor to treat with indifference his Majeſty's moderate propoſals. We ſaw the ſpirit as early as the 14th of July, and it was confirmed on the 26th. His Majeſty's anſwer was received by the French Plenipotentiaries with aſſurances indeed of a pacific diſpoſition, but followed by no renewal on their part with terms of negotiation. A long delay took

took place; at last, however, assurances came from them again of a pacific disposition, but followed with this observation, "that the delay of the answer was a proof that the Directory did really desire to forward the great object of peace; that much time must necessarily be taken up in forming an answer, because they were under the necessity of sending to their allies an account of what passed, and that they were endeavouring to prevail on them to accede to proposals for putting an end to the calamities of war." It is in this manner the Directory pretended to feel for their allies in this war, a war into which they brought these allies, who are now, let the French Directory give to them what importance they please in the negotiation, in a state of prostration to the French, and have nothing to look for but loss and disgrace. The Directory then directed their Plenipotentiaries to inform Lord Malmesbury that they had sent to their allies for their consent to our proposals, and that they had obtained an answer, but not being a satisfactory answer, they were under the necessity of sending to such allies another message. It was then they endeavoured to conceal their insincerity. This continued until the dreadful catastrophe of the 4th September. Until that violence appeared in Paris, and as late as some days after that event, they promised to produce their *project*; they could not, however, do so in less than four days. They were still as pacific as formerly in their professions. But after all these, and this last assurance, what was the first step they took to go on with the negotiation in this spirit of conciliation as they professed? The first step was to renew, in a shape more offensive than formerly, the already rejected demand, which two months before was made, and when made, positively rejected by Lord Malmesbury, in which rejection they acquiesced, and in the interval between the two, we had been patiently waiting for the proposals that were to come from them, or at least their answer to ours. This demand of theirs, thus renewed, was nothing less than that Lord Malmesbury should shew to them, not only his powers, but also his instructions. They asked, that after they were in possession of his powers, they should know what use he was instructed to make of those powers. They asked from us an irrevocable pledge, that we should restore to them and to their allies all we had gained, without knowing from them what they were afterwards to ask further from us. But they are bound, it seems, by their constitution and private treaties, to insist on the proposition which they stated to us—that is to say, France must first establish its own claims to honour and independence, and then sit in judgment on its own acts, and call that its honour and independence. If any man can really suppose it is possible for this country, consistently with its own honour, to accede to such a proposal, or that such a negotiation, thus commenced, is likely to lead to a good end in favour of this country, all I can say is, that with such a man I am unable to argue. I leave others to imagine what was likely to have been the end of a negotiation, in which it was to have been settled, as a preliminary, that you were to give up all that you have gained; and when, on the side of your enemy, not a word was said what he had to propose afterwards. They demand of your Ambassador to shew to them not only all his powers, but also his instructions, before they explain a word of theirs; and they tell you too, that you are never to expect to hear what their powers are, until you be ready to accede to any thing which the Directory may think fit to dictate. Such was the way in which the prospect of peace was to be opened to you, and upon which all hopes of peace were broken off. I say broken off; for the gross attempt to deceive all Europe by the affectation of moderation, in ordering the French ministers to remain at Lille for ten days, is really below comment. They say they expected an ambassador to return. They knew it was impossible he should, after they had stated, as a *sine qua non*, that you should throw yourselves at their feet for mercy, before you knew what terms they should be afterwards in the humour to dictate. The French government, however they may despise the interest, have felt enough to know the necessity of giving a colour of attention to the wishes of the people of France, else they would not have made so many assurances of a sincere desire for peace. But, fortunately for this country, there is now no pretext left for them, as is manifest by the papers which are now made public. But it is proper for you to see at what

your

your enemy is aiming. It is not againſt your commerce; it is not againſt your wealth; it is not againſt your colonies in the weſt, or territories in the eaſt; nor is it againſt your maritime greatneſs, or the extent of your empire—No! It is the object of your enemy to deſtroy the eſſence of your liberty, the foundation of your independence, the citadel of your happineſs—your conſtitution; that is the object of their hoſtility. It is evident; they themſelves have declared it. They have ſaid that your government and theirs cannot ſubſiſt; that one of them muſt be deſtroyed. Should they come among you, they will bring with their invading army the great peſtilence to man—the genius of French liberty; which contains in it every curſe to ſociety, and would be the total ſubverſion of your conſtitution, with which it forms a fatal and malignant contraſt. In the place of that beautiful fabric will be a hideous monſter, that nothing can content but the annihilation of Britiſh liberty, and thoſe glorious principles which have rendered you the moſt conſpicuous and happy people in Europe. Are we, under theſe circumſtances, afraid or aſhamed to declare in a firm, deciſive, manly tone, that we will defend ourſelves? Or, are we to ſhun the truth, and forget the energy that belongs to Engliſhmen? I do not ſcruple, for one, to declare, that if I knew the conteſt was not likely to terminate in our favour, I would ſay, that the conteſt, with its worſt proſpect, would be better than acquieſcence in theſe demands, ſince the chance is better than a certainty of ruin. If therefore we value property; if we value liberty; if we value law; if we value national power; if we value any thing that either has contributed or can contribute to our happineſs, or even to our ſafety, we will reſiſt theſe demands with indignation. It affects us all from the higheſt to the loweſt. There is not one man, let his enjoyments be ever ſo great, or property ſo conſiderable, who ſhould not ſacrifice any portion of it to oppoſe the violence of the enemy, nor one whoſe ſtock is ſo ſmall, that he ſhould not be ready to ſacrifice his life in the ſame cauſe. We owe it as a debt to poſterity as well as to ourſelves to preſerve our character in the page of hiſtory. We owe it as gratitude to Providence, whoſe goodneſs has placed us ſo high in the ſcale of nations, and cauſed us to be the admiration of Europe, with moſt of the governments of which ours is a happy contraſt. I ſay gratitude to Providence ought to inſpire us to make efforts in defence of the moſt valuable bleſſings which we enjoy. There may be danger, but on the one one ſide there is danger accompanied by honour; on the other, the certainty of indelible diſgrace and ſhame; for it will prove the dereliction of principle, and a daſtardly fear which has never yet been attributed to you. Upon ſuch an alternative Engliſhmen cannot heſitate. I wiſh to diſguiſe no part of my ſentiments, nor the grounds upon which I put the iſſue of the cauſe. My opinion of the event of the conteſt is not altered, but my hopes are animated. The means of our own ſafety are ſtill in our own hands, and there never was a period in which we were more conſpicuous to the world than the preſent. Our reſources are ſtill very great: our commerce is the envy of ſurrounding nations; the bleſſings which we now enjoy furniſh us with the means of continuing them; the protection of ſuch bleſſings I truſt we ſhall never abandon; and I hope the luſtre of the Engliſh character will ſhine forth and preſerve your fame as a nation. I ſay, I truſt you will never abandon your duty to yourſelves and to your poſterity, nor your gratitude to Providence, in any extremity to which you may be driven, but that you will cheerfully enter into a pledge for the ſincere performance of your duty, by declaring that you are prepared to maintain your character, and that you are determined to ſtand or fall by the laws, liberties and religion of your country.

[After the very eloquent and forcible ſpeech of Mr Pitt, which we have thought it eſſential at this momentous criſis to give as amply as poſſible, the debate took a turn by no means intereſting, and chiefly remarkable for the unanimity of ſentiment profeſſed by every ſpeaker who followed.]

Dr Lawrence propoſed offenſive meaſures againſt France, in ſtrong terms, and alluded to the times of Edward III.

Mr Wilberforce called for the unanimity of the Houſe; and at length Sir John Sinclair very handſomely conſented to withdraw his amendment, and the addreſs paſſed *nem. con.*—Adjourned.

MONTHLY

MONTHLY REGISTER.

CONTINENTAL INTELLIGENCE.

FRANCE.

We mentioned in our laſt the intention of the French to invade England. On the 26th October, the Executive Directory decreed, That there ſhall be aſſembled without delay, on the coaſts of the ocean, an army, which ſhall take the name of the *Army of England*. Citizen General Buonaparte is named commander in chief of that army.

Dec. 7. General Buonaparte arrived in Paris; upon the 9th, being preſented to the Directory by the miniſter for foreign affairs, the latter delivered a ſpeech of conſiderable length, wherein, after having paſſed an ingenious eulogium on his talents, virtues, and exploits, he obſerved that a new enemy was calling upon him. "This enemy," he ſaid, "is celebrated for his hatred againſt the French, and for the inſolent tyranny he exerciſes over all the nations upon earth. Let the genius of Buonaparte make him ſoon expiate his hatred and tyranny, and dictate to the tyrants of the ſea a peace worthy of the glory of the French Republic."

At the end of this ſpeech, General Buonaparte delivered to the preſident the Emperor's ratification of the treaty of Campo-Formio, and addreſſed the directors in the following terms:

"Citizens Directors,

"The French people, in order to be free, had kings to combat. To obtain a conſtitution founded on reaſon, they had to overcome the prejudices of eighteen centuries. Religion, royaliſm, and the feudal ſyſtem, governed Europe for twenty centuries paſt; but with the peace which you have concluded, begins the æra of repreſentative governments. You have ſucceeded in organiſing the great nation, whoſe vaſt territory is circumſcribed by thoſe limits only which nature herſelf has traced. You have done more. The two fineſt countries of Europe, once celebrated for the arts, ſciences, and great men they produced, ſee the genius of liberty riſe from the tombs of their anceſtors. They are two pedeſtals on which fate is going to place two powerful nations. I have the honour to deliver to you the treaty ſigned at Campo-Formio, and ratified by his Majeſty, the Emperor. This peace ſecures the liberty, the proſperity, and the glory of the republic.—When the happineſs of the French people ſhall be firmly ſettled on the baſis of the beſt and wiſeſt laws, all Europe will be free."

It is very remarkable, that General Buonaparte does not return thanks to the preſident for his new appointment, or take the ſmalleſt notice of this grand project.

This ſpeech was received with the moſt enthuſiaſtic ſhouts of applauſe, and anſwered by the preſident of the Directory, who concluded his harangue in the following manner:

"Citizen general! crown ſo glorious a career by a conqueſt which the great nation owes to its outraged dignity.—Go, and, by the puniſhment you inflict on the cabinet of London, ſtrike terror into all the governments which ſhall dare to doubt the power of a nation of freemen. Pompey did not diſdain to cruſh a neſt of pirates. Greater than the Roman general, go and chain the gigantic pirates who lord it over the ſeas; go and puniſh in London crimes which have remained unpuniſhed but too long. Numerous votaries of liberty wait your arrival; you will find no enemies but vice and wickedneſs. They alone ſupport that peſtilious government. Strike it down, and let its downfal inform the world, that if the French people are the benefactors of Europe, they are alſo the avengers of the rights of nations."

At the end of this ſpeech, the preſident and all the members of the Directory gave him the fraternal embrace; and after the ceremony was over, the directors, Generals Buonaparte and Joubert, the miniſters, foreign ambaſſadors, &c. ſat down to a ſuperb dinner, during which, among other toaſts, the following was drank: "The liberty of the ſeas; and may the republican armies ſoon relieve them from the yoke of that oppreſſive government which has ſo long tyrannized over the globe!"

GERMANY.

Peſth, Nov. 17. His Majeſty the King of Pruſſia departed this life at nine in the morning, with that tranquility and firmneſs which he has ſo frequently manifeſted amid the dangers of war. His preſent Majeſty, Frederic William III. arrived

arrived here about half after one, accompanied by his Adjutant-Major Kockeritz. He had been fent for on the King's growing worfe, but had not arrived in time to receive his paternal bleffing. Every thing in the royal apartments was, as ufual, fealed up. In the afternoon, about three o'clock, the foldiers and officers here took the oath of fidelity to the new fovereign.

Raftadt, a town of Germany, four miles from Baden, is agreed on as the place where the Congrefs is met for adjufting the claims of the different German princes, in conſequence of the treaty betwixt the Emperor and the French government. Raftadt is remarkable for a treaty formerly concluded there between the French and Imperialifts in 1714. By the laft accounts, (Dec. 9.) the treaty was ratified, and the deputies from the different ſtates were aſſembling: General Buonaparte was there on the part of the French republic.

HOLLAND.

The Batavian National Aſſembly has rejected, by a great majority, the oath of hatred which was propoſed to them againſt the Stadtholder, ariſtocracy and anarchy.

PORTUGAL.

Diſpatches are ſaid to be received from Liſbon, purporting, that the Court of Portugal, in conſequence of the turn of affairs, had determined to conclude a treaty of peace with the French republic, and that her Moſt Faithful Majeſty had ſent off to Paris a quantity of diamonds, to the value of near 400,000l. Sterling, as an earneſt of her ſincerity.

This appears to be the conſequence of the following *arrete* of the 20th Oct. laſt. "The Executive Directory conſidering that the Queen of Portugal, inſtead of ſending a pure and ſimple ratification of the treaty of peace, concluded with the Executive Directory, in the name of the French republic, on the 10th of Auguſt of the 3d year, within the period of two months preſcribed by the ſaid treaty, has put her fortreſſes and principal poſts in the poſſeſſion of the Engliſh army, decrees what follows:

"The treaty between the French republic and the Queen of Portugal, concluded on the 10th of Auguſt of the 4th year, and not ratified on the part of the ſaid Queen, is conſidered as not having taken place.

The miniſter for foreign affairs is charged to notify to M. d'Azvedo, miniſter plenipotentiary of the Queen of Portugal to withdraw without delay from the territory of the republic. (Signed)

Reveilliere Lepaux, Preſident
Legarde, Sec. Gen."

AMERICA.

The Congreſs of the United States was opened on Thurſday, November 23, by a ſpeech from the preſident. It commences by announcing the decline of the ſickneſs, and the reſtoration of health, and laments that peace is not yet re-eſtabliſhed in Europe. The preſident then concludes—"Gentlemen of the Senate, and Gentlemen of the Houſe of Repreſentatives, We are met together at a moſt intereſting period. The ſituation of the principal powers of Europe are ſingular and portentous. Connected with ſome by treaties, and with all by commerce, no important event there can be indifferent to us. Such circumſtances call, with a peculiar importunity, not leſs for a diſpoſition to unite in all thoſe meaſures on which the honour, ſafety, and proſperity of our country depend, than for all the exertions of wiſdom and firmneſs. In all ſuch meaſures, you may rely on my zealous and hearty concurrence. JOHN ADAMS."

LONDON.

Sheerneſs, Dec. 4. This day Captain Williamſon of his Majeſty's ſhip Agincourt, was brought into court at ten o'clock, in cuſtody of a deputy marſhal provoſt of the Admiralty, and placed at the lower end, the provoſt ſtanding by his ſide with a drawn ſword.

The charges were then read:

"1ſt, That you did not, upon order and ſignal of fight, and upon fight of ſeveral of the enemy's ſhips, do your duty, and obey ſuch ſignals; and that, on the 11th of October laſt, you did, in time of action, keep back, and did not come into fight and engagement, and did not aſſiſt and relieve ſuch of his Majeſt's ſhips as it was your duty to aſſiſt and relieve.

"2dly, That on the ſaid 11th day of October laſt, during the time of action, through cowardice, negligence, or diſaffection, you did keep back, and did not come into the engagement, and did not do your utmoſt to aſſiſt and relieve ſuch of

of his Majesty's ships as it was your duty to assist and relieve."

The order for bringing the prisoner to trial was also read, signed by the Commissioners for executing the office of Lord High Admiral of England: and the letter from Capt. Hopper to Lord Spencer, stating the grounds on which the application to them was founded, for bringing Capt. Williamson to trial.

The court consists of the following officers:

Adm. Skeffington Lutwidge, President.

Capts. Manley, Maxtone, Parr, Bertie, J. Smith, Hargood, Ferris, Lawford, Inman, Douglas, and Beard.

Thomas Binstead, Esq; Judge Advocate.

Dec. 5. A most numerous meeting of the Whig Club of England was held at the Crown and Anchor tavern in the Strand; at which Mr Fox assigned his reasons for not attending the House of Commons. He said that his attendance in parliament was only holding out to the people false hopes, and that his perseverance was only aiding imposture. He called upon gentlemen to say, whether his continuing to attend in his place was likely to be of service to the public? On the contrary, if it was clear and manifest, from the experience of the whole of this war, that by correcting and softening the detail of measures fundamentally erroneous and destructive, they had served only to palliate a system so mischievous in its principles, as rather to be the abettors of iniquity than its opponents, he submitted to them whether it was either wise or patriotic to continue an attendance, which served to gloss over our ruin rather than to prevent it?

8. Mary Benson, alias Maria Theresa Phipoe, was capitally convicted at the Old-Bailey, for having wilfully killed Mary Cox, by cutting and stabbing her with a knife; and was sentenced to be executed on Monday next, and afterwards her body to be dissected and anatomised.

The circumstances which came out on this trial were, that Mary Cox, the deceased, went to the lodgings of Benson, alias Phipoe, in Garden-street, St George's in the east, to purchase a watch and some other articles, and while there, Phipoe, on some pretence of disagreement concerning the things she had to dispose of, stabbed and cut Cox several times with a knife, so that she died a few days after, in the London-hospital. It came out in evidence that after the stabs, &c. had been given, and the woman taken to a lower apartment in the house, that a witness went up to Mrs Phipoe, and asked her, "For God Almighty's sake, what have you done to the woman below?" She answered, "I don't know; I believe the devil and passion bewitched me." There was part of a finger and a case-knife lying upon the table;—he said, "Is this the knife you did the woman's business with?" She answered "Yes."—"Is this your finger?—Yes."—"Did the woman below cut it off?—Yes." It was, however, proved that the deceased, on being questioned at the hospital, denied having cut the prisoner's finger off.

13. The general opposition to the present plan of raising money by increasing the assessed taxes, will appear from the following resolutions of a court of common council, held at Guildhall:

Resolved unanimously, That this court is of opinion, that the bill now pending in Parliament, for increasing the present assessed taxes (if passed into a law) will not only prove partial and oppressive in its operations, by affecting the middle and lower classes of people in a much greater proportion than persons of high and affluent circumstances, but will tend to diminish our trade and manufactures, increase the poor rates, and utterly ruin many thousands of the most useful and industrious members of the community, who can with the greatest difficulty pay their present assessments.

Resolved unanimously, That every member of this court, who has a seat in Parliament, be requested to oppose the passing of the said bill into a law.

19. This day being appointed for a general thanksgiving for the several victories obtained by his Majesty's fleets, a grand procession to St Paul's, by the royal family and the two houses of parliament, took place. The foot guards were all on duty in the Strand soon after six, the horse guards lining the Park, Pall mall, and Charing cross, assisted by a detachment of the Queen's regiment of light horse, and the 6th regiment of dragoon guards. At seven, the seamen and marines, with their officers, assembled in Palace-yard, and at eight the cavalcade commenced in the following order:

An artillery waggon with the French flags; 12 feamen and 12 marines on each fide.

The following officers in their carriages.

Vice-Admiral Caldwall, 1ft of June 1794;
Vice-Admiral Goodall, 12th of March 1795;
Rear-Admiral Hamilton, 13d of June 1795;
Repreſentatives of Admiral Earl Howe, Admiral Lord Bridport, and Admiral Lord Duncan.

A diviſion of ſeamen, with their officers.

An artillery waggon, with the Spaniſh flags; 12 ſeamen and 12 marines on each ſide.

In carriages,

Vice-Admiral Sir C. Thompſon, 14th of February, 1797;
Captain J. Harvey, Trinidad, 17th of February 1797;
Repreſentatives of Admiral Earl St Vincent and Rear-Admiral Harvey.

A diviſion of ſeamen with their officers.

An artillery waggon, with the Dutch flags taken from Admirals De Winter, Reintjes, and Lucas; 12 ſeamen and 12 marines on each ſide.

In carriages,

Admiral Lord Duncan, 11th of October, 1797;
Rear Admiral Douglas, 17th of Auguſt, 1797;
The laſt officer being the repreſentative of Vice-Admiral Lord Keith, to whom Admiral Lucas with his ſquadron capitulated in Saldanha bay.

The Members of the Houſe of Commons,
In the rear of whom came
The Speaker, in his ſtate-carriage,
Three knights marſhalmen,
Clerk of the crown,
Maſters in chancery, and
The twelve Judges.

The Lords Spiritual and Temporal, in their robes, but not mitred (from accident, perhaps) in the order of their rank or ſeniority—followed by

The Lord High Chancellor, in his robes of ſtate.

THE ROYAL FAMILY, &c.

In this manner the proceſſion paraded to Temple-bar, where their Majeſties were received by

The Lord-Mayor,

Creſſed in a crimſon velvet gown, mounted on a fine gray horſe, elegantly capariſoned, and bearing the ſword of the city, which he delivered to the King, with his head uncovered. His Majeſty accepted the civic compliment with the utmoſt politeneſs, and immediately returned the ſword to his Lordſhip.

The two Sheriffs, and four of the Common-Council, attended at the Cathedral, where the Corporation received the King.—The Sheriffs, in their gowns of office, and the ſword carried by the Lord Mayor immediately before his Majeſty's coach.—The four Common-Council, in their gowns, before the Aldermen.

At the weſt door, the Peers in their robes, attended by the King at arms, and other officers, met their Majeſties; the gentlemen penſioners being all in waiting.

An order was iſſued from the office of the Duke of Portland, that every foreigner who ſhall hereafter be found in a gambling-houſe, no matter whether he plays or is a mere looker-one, ſhall be ſent out of the country in virtue of the alien bill.

Rear-Adm. Sir Horatio Nelſon has received the freedom of the city, and an elegant ſword, voted to him by the corporation for his meritorious conduct in the unſucceſsful attack againſt the iſland of Teneriff, where he loſt his arm.

Advices are received from the Weſt Indies of a dreadful mutiny, on the 22d of September, on board the Hermione frigate, when Capt. Pigot, and all his officers, except the ſurgeon and one maſter's mate, were murdered, as well as moſt of the marines—in all more than 40 perſons. They carried the frigate to Laguana, intending to deliver her up to the Spaniſh governor, on a capitulation to be paid their arrear. of pay, to be received as Spaniſh ſubjects, and not to be returned at the end of the war. The mutiny was headed by Capt. Pigot's own coxſwain, who had been in different ſhips four or five years with him.

On the 7th October, a mutiny broke out on board of the fleet at the Cape of Good Hope. They continued in a tumultuous ſtate till the 12th, conducting themſelves in a manner ſimilar to what took place at the Nore. A proclamation was iſſued, promiſing a pardon to ſuch as returned to their duty. Now general quiet, and a proper ſenſe of their miſconduct prevails; and the ſquadron is in its uſual ſtate of ſubordination and diſcipline, as appears by the following letter from Admiral Pringle, who commands the ſquadron, to Lord Macartney:

Tremendous, Simon's Bay, 12 o'clock, October 12. 1797.

"My Lord, I embrace with pleaſure the earlieſt moment to acquaint you, that the crews of his Majeſty's ſhips under

der my command, having returned to regularity, and a proper ſenſe of their duty, I have granted to them a general pardon for their late highly improper conduct. I have the honour to be, &c.

T. PRINGLE."

Right Hon. Earl Macartney.

COL. FITZGERALD.

The conduct of Col. Fitzgerald in ſeducing his relative, and the conſequent duel with her brother, are freſh in the memory of the public; we ſhall therefore limit our obſervations to the circumſtances which immediately preceded and occaſioned his death. The deceaſed, feeling no remorſe for the diſhonour in which he had involved an illuſtrious family, had the hardihood to follow the young lady to Ireland, it is ſuppoſed, with a view to wreſt her by violence from her parents, and took lodgings at an inn in Kilworth. He had been there ſome days before his arrival at Kilworth was known, or the object of his expedition was diſcovered. He was obſerved to walk out in the night, and conceal himſelf in the day, and the ſervants, at length, noticed him lurking about Mitchelſtown houſe, at unſeaſonable hours. The intelligence having reached Lord Kingſborough, who had fought the duel with the Colonel, and reſolved to defeat his antagoniſt's project, he left his father's houſe, and repaired to Kilworth, where having inquired for the Colonel, he was directed to the apartment in which he was lodged. Lord Kingſborough rapped at the door, requiring admittance; the other, knowing his voice, replied, that he was locked in, and could not open the door, but if he had any thing to ſay to him, he would receive it in writing under the door. This enraged the young nobleman, and he forced open the door, and running to a caſe of piſtols in the room, dared the Colonel to take one, and defend himſelf, for he was reſolved to have ſatisfaction for the ſcheme the Colonel had formed againſt his ſiſter, and which he came to this place to put in execution. On both ſeizing the piſtols, they grappled with each other, and were ſtruggling, when the Earl of Kingſton, who had been appriſed of his ſon's departure in purſuit of the Colonel, and quickly followed the young Lord, entered the room, and finding them in the conteſt, and that his ſon muſt loſe his life from the ſituation the deceaſed had him in, the Earl fired, and the Colonel fell. The preſent Earl of Kingſton, who is about to be tried by his Peers in Ireland, in conſequence of the late *rencounter*, which proved fatal to Col. Fitzgerald, poſſeſſes an eſtate in that kingdom to the amount of 18,000l. per annum. He was united to his preſent Counteſs, a diſtant relation, at ſo early a period of his life, in order to unite the family fortunes, that he was taken from his ſchool to the altar, and married when the joint ages of him and his bride did not amount to [illegible]. The ceremony being over, his Lordſhip's grandfather, who was the ſecret promoter of the match, wiſhed his grandſon to return to ſchool; but the young bridegroom, delighted with his early date of conjugal bliſs, begged to be excuſed, and has continued to an uninterrupted enjoyment of it, till the domeſtic felicity which has lately deſtroyed it.

DUBLIN.

It is not eaſy to get at the truth of the real ſituation of this country. We truſt the repreſentation of Lord Moira in the Houſe of Peers was exaggerated. The following letter from Wicklow, we believe deſerving of credit.

Wicklow, Dec. 10. In this county the principles of the United Iriſhmen have made a rapid and alarming progreſs. The goal is crowded with ſuſpected perſons. Three priſoners were conducted through this town to-day, one of whom is a reſident of this parish, and a man I know very well. On Wedneſday laſt twelve perſons were taken up in the town of Wicklow. In ſome parts of the county they are actually training up bodies of cavalry, by the aſſiſtance of ſoldiers, whom they have prevailed upon to deſert. Such is the ſituation of the moſt peaceable county in the kingdom.

EDINBURGH.

The Governors of George Watſon's Hoſpital, have ordered a piece of plate to be preſented to William Galloway, Eſq; and alſo requeſted him to ſit for his picture, on account of his long and faithful ſervices as Treaſurer to that uſeful inſtitution. Mr Galloway has filled the office of Treaſurer for thirty years, with equal credit to himſelf and advantage to the Hoſpital. In no ſmilar inſtitution are the boys better educated,

or their morals and health better attended to.

The First Troop of East Lothian Yeomanry Cavalry met at Salton, when a handsome Silver Cup was presented by the Troop to Sir James Baird, Bart. with the following inscription:—"Presented to SIR JAMES BAIRD, Bart. of Saughtonhall, by the FIRST TROOP of *East Lothian Volunteer Yeomanry Cavalry*, as an acknowledgment of the distinguished advantages which they derived from his unremitting attention, in training them in the knowledge and use of arms. 1797."

Nov. 30. This being St Andrew's day, the tutelar saint of Scotland, the masters and office bearers of the ancient and most honourable fraternity of Free and Accepted Masons, accompanied by proxies and deputations from the lodges in the more distant parts, assembled in the Parliament House, and after chusing their grand officers, they unanimiously voted an address of congratulation to his Majesty, on Lord Duncan's brilliant victory. In the evening, the different lodges marched in procession (for the first time these seven years,) from the Parliament House to the King's Arms Tavern, where an elegant collation was provided, and the evening spent with that harmony and regularity which are the characteristics of this ancient and honourable society.

An alarming fire broke out in a bookbinder's shop in Forrester's Wynd, which was fortunately confined to the house where it began by the exertions of the firemen and a fire engine.

Dec. 6. Millesius Roderick M'Cuillin, lately found guilty of forging the guinea notes of the Paisley Banking Company, was executed at the west end of the tolbooth.—He was a young man, not exceeding 24 years of age, a native of Ireland; in all his demeanor he evinced the manners of a gentleman, and that he had been bred in polite life. The name he took he acknowledged was not the name of his family, which he declared he never would reveal, on account of the unhappy circumstances attending his fate. After he had received sentence, he wrote to several persons, soliciting them to intercede for mercy. Every attention was shewn to him during his confinement, and every indulgence allowed consistent with his situation. On Monday evening (Dec. 4.) he attempted to make his escape. About seven o'clock he knocked upon the floor of his room, the signal for the jailor to come to him—the jailor accordingly went into the room, where the prisoner gave him a letter to read; when reading it, the prisoner suddenly leaped from his couch, having previously sawn through his irons, seized the jailor by the throat, and immediately two fellows, prisoners at large in the jail, rushed in to overpower the jailor, whom they very violently pushed into a corner of the room. M'Cuillan with one hand put a napkin in his mouth to prevent him from crying, and with the other attempted to cut him in the neck with a knife—fortunately, however, he missed his neck, but cut him deeply in the cheek. The jailor getting hold of the knife, wrested it from the prisoner, and then used it in his own defence, by which the prisoner received a deep cut across the arm, and another in the thigh. By this time an alarm was given, and assistance being procured, the jailor was relieved and the prisoner secured. When questioned as to the enormity of his attempt, he answered, "that when his situation was considered, no man could blame him for attempting to escape from it, and that he now regretted he had made the attempt, only because it had not succeeded." Having failed in this, on Tuesday evening he made an attempt, still more daring, to poison himself. To effect this he took a very considerable quantity of laudanum; but being observed, a physician was immediately sent for, who ordered him a strong emetic. In a short time he threw off the deadly potion, and soon after fell into a profound sleep, in which he continued some hours, and then awaked in a very sickly state; and, in the morning and afternoon of Wednesday, the day of his execution, he behaved with great composure.

A few days ago, five capital hunters, and a hound, belonging to the Lanark and Renfrewshire hunts, were found suffocated in the stables of Sir John Maxwell, at Pollock. The groom, it is supposed, had dropped the snuffings of the candle on some wet straw, which produced so thick a smoke as to suffocate them.

19. The general thanksgiving was observed here with much regularity and de-

decorum. Several of the volunteer corps paraded in uniform, previous to their attending divine service.—A liberal collection was made for the Charity Workhouse, the particular amount of which was as follows:

St Andrews Church	L. 56	9	10¼
High Church - -	51	11	5
Old Grayfriars -	17	8	6½
Tolbooth Church -	16	3	5¼
New North Church -	12	15	11
New Grayfriars -	12	1	0¼
Lady Yester's Church -	11	14	3¾
Tron Church - -	10	16	8½
Old Church - -	8	0	1½
College Church -	6	13	4½
New Episcopal Chapel -	28	9	4
Mr Sandford's ditto -	22	1	0
St George's Chapel, Mr Cleeve	12	15	5
Relief Congregation, Mr Struthers - -	11	11	0
Independent Congregation, Chalmers' Close -	11	10	0
Lady Glenorchy's Church	10	10	0½
St Peter's Chapel, Mr Allan	8	13	7½
Carruber's Close Chapel, Mr Webster - -	6	7	5
Baptist Chapel, Richmond Street - -	7	14	0¾
Bishop Hay's Chapel -	4	11	8
Highland regt. R. E. V. -	6	17	2½
2d Bat. 2d regt. R. E. V.	4	13	0
Letter to W. W. -	1	1	0
	L. 335	9	5¼

The following lines of advice to Poets on the Thanksgiving, are worthy of preservation.

YE youthful Bards, who shall in verse explain
How gallant *Duncan* conquer'd on the main,
Invoke not *Neptune*—that's an empty name;
The *God* of *Hosts* our triumph did ordain.
Praise *God* in *song*; in *deed* obey his laws;
Nor Frenchman fear; nor doubt our better cause.

24. The Lord Provost received a respite, during his Majesty's pleasure, for William Hendry, lately condemned by the High Court of Justiciary, along with Marshall, for breaking into the house of a farmer near Kirkliston. He has since received a pardon.

HIGH COURT OF JUSTICIARY.

Nov. 8. On Tuesday the Court met, to take up the trial at the instance of Mrs Barbarie de la Motte, against Sir William Jardine of Applegirth, Bart. No appearance being made for the lady, decreet of absolvitor was pronounced in favour of Sir William, from this iniquitous and unfounded prosecution.

Nov. 27. Came on the trial of J^n^ Young, alias Thomson, alias David Marshall, and Wm Hendry, for robbery and house-breaking, in the house of Alex. Miller, farmer in Puncheon Law, parish of Kirkliston. The crime being proved, they were both sentenced to be executed on the 3d of January next.

Dec. 11. This day came on the trial of John Somervell, John Boyd, James Greenshields, Robert Hutcheson, Allan Gibson, and John Hamilton, accused of rioting at Carlairs in August last. After the examination of the witnesses, the evidence was summed up for the Crown by the Lord Advocate; on the part of the pannel John Boyd, by Mr H. D. Inglis; on the part of the pannels Greenshields, Hutcheson, Gibson, and Hamilton, by Mr G. J. Bell; and on the part of John Somervell, by Mr James Ferguson. The Lord Justice Clerk charged the Jury, after which they inclosed, and on Tuesday afternoon returned a verdict—"All in one voice finding that the said John Somervell is *Not Guilty*; and they all in one voice found it *proven*, that the said John Boyd, James Greenshields, Robert Hutcheson, Allan Gibson, and John Hamilton, did enter into, and continue in Mr Lockhart of Cleghorn's house, for some time, contrary to his orders, and against his consent."—Somervell was dismissed from the bar. And on Friday the Court was unanimously of opinion, that no punishment could follow upon it. The pannels were therefore assoilzied simpliciter, and dismissed from the bar.

APPEALS.

Smart *v.* Magistrates of Dundee.—*Affirmed*, without hearing the respondent's counsel.

Sime *v.* Viscount Arbuthnot.—*Affirmed.*

Hotchkis trustee for the creditors of Bertram, Gardner, and Co. *v.* the Royal Bank of Scotland.—*Affirmed.*

21. Mrs Lowthian *v.* heirs of R. Lowthian partly *reversed* and partly *affirmed.*

23. Sir Hew Dalrymple, Bart. *v.* the Hon. Mrs Fullarton. Remitted to the Court of Session, for further consideration.

Lord Arbuthnot *v.* Colin Gillies.—*Affirmed.*

THE month of December has, in general, been open and moderate. The butcher markets have been well supplyed,

ed, and at reaſonable prices; beef and mutton 5d and 6d per lib. The fiſhers being all employed in the herring fiſhery, there has been few other fiſh at market. Herring 8 a-penny.

LISTS.

MARRIAGES.

At Armady, in Argyleſhire, Capt. Archibald Campbell, of Milliford, to Miſs C. B. Campbell, daughter of John Campbell, Eſq; of Leichend.

Dr Archibald Paton, Phyſician in Liverpool, to Miſs Burton, daughter of Daniel Burton, Eſq; of Manchester.

Major Donaldſon, of the 9th dragoons, to Miſs Reilly, daughter of the late J. Reilly, Eſq; of Bury St Edmund's.

At Derby, Captain Hugh Campbell, of the 83th regiment of foot, to Miſs Sophia Barber, daughter of Thomas Barber, Eſq; of Bilberow.

5. James Campbell, Eſq; younger of Craigneith, to Miſs Jean Campbell, daughter of the late Robert Campbell of Sunderland.

— Mr Thomas Gilzean, Sheriff-ſubſtitute of Inverneſs-ſhire, to Miſs Sarah Grant, daughter of Duncan Grant, Eſq; of Bught.

11. The Right Hon. the Earl of Dalhouſie, Lieutenant Colonel of 2d foot, to Miſs A. Bethell, daughter of the late George Bethell, Eſq; of Bradfurd, Wilts.

— At Glenbervie, the Rev. Mr James Wilſon, miniſter of Farnell, to Miſs J. Nicolſon, daughter of the late Sir Wm Nicolſon, Bart. of Glenbervie.

13. James Farquhar Gordon, Eſq; of Balmuir, W. S. to Miſs Lilias Hunter, daughter of Charles Hunter, Eſq; of Burnſide.

— At Kirkcaldy, Mr Thomas Willis, manufacturer there, to Miſs Alicia Higgie, daughter of George Higgie, Eſq; of Pitlethe.

15. At London, Edward Boyd, Eſq; merchant in London, to Miſs Yule, daughter of Benjamin Yule of Wheatfield, Eſq.

17. Rev. James M'Lean, Gorbals, to Miſs Ann Ballentine, Glaſgow.

20. At Dumfries, the Rev. Alexander Scott, miniſter of the New Church, Dumfries, to Miſs Janet Kilpatrick, daughter of the late Wm Kilpatrick, Eſq. of Conheath.

27. At Edinburgh, Alexander Trotter, Eſq; of Dreghorn, to Miſs Stuart, daughter of the late Sir John Stuart of Allanbank.

— At Auldhouſe, Archibald Campbell, Eſq; of Treeſbank, to Miſs Elizabeth Beaumont.

28. At Torry, James Shepherd, barber and field preacher, aged twenty, to Miſs Nelly Auld, of Nigg, aged ſeventy-ſeven, three feet high, and deformed to the laſt degree of contortion.—Though the day was very ſtormy and rough, yet, ſo great was the public curioſity, that not only the ferry boats, but the whale-boats, were employed great part of the day, in conveying people acroſs the river, to witneſs ſo very extraordinary nuptials.

Dec. 4. Robert Grant, Eſq; of Kingcorth, to Miſs Anne Grant, daughter of the Rev. Lewis Grant, miniſter of Cromdale.

5. Charles Wedderburn, Eſq; of Pearſe, to Miſs Rattray, daughter of Mr David Rattray of Warwickſhire.

8. James Rattray, Eſq; younger of Kirkhillocks, to Miſs Johan Rattray, daughter of Thomas Rattlay, Eſq; of Dalrulzian.

13. At Murthly, Lieutenant Cecil, of the Windſor Forreſters, to Miſs Louiſa Drummond, daughter of the late John Drummond, Eſq; of Logie-Almond.

18. At Edinburgh, Major John Skinner, of the 16th regiment of foot, to Miſs Ann Maclean, daughter of the late John Maclean, Eſq; of Arriſlaw.

— At Glaſgow, Mr Charles Gibſon, merchant, to Miſs Elizabeth Dalrymple, daughter of Captain John Dalrymple, reſiding at Glaſgow.

26. At Dundee, Mr Robert Thornton, merchant, to Miſs Agnes Small, daughter of the Rev. Dr Small, of that place.

BIRTHS.

Oct. 24. Mrs Campbell, of South-hall, a ſon.

— Counteſs of Caithneſs, a ſon.

Nov. 4. Lady George Murray, a ſon.

8. Counteſs of Sutherland, a daughter.

Lady Stopford, a ſon.

14. Mrs Lyell, of Kinnordy, a ſon.

15. Lady Dunbar, of Northfield, a ſon.

24. Lady Bruce of Stenhouſe, a ſon.

30. Lady Balgonie, a daughter.

2. Mrs Turner of Turnerhall, a daughter.

3. Mrs Wiſe of Clearmont, a ſon.

9. Mrs Farquharſon of Howden, a daughter.

12. Lady Helen Hall, a ſon.

20. Mrs Campbell of Clathick, a daughter.

23. Mrs Grant of Congalton, a daughter.

DEATHS.

In the Eaſt Indies, Lieut. John Henry Drummond, of the Bombay Marine, younger of Keltie.

At Dominica, Mr Andrew Belſrage, ſurgeon of the 45th regiment of foot.

At Jamaica, Mr Wm Beatſon, ſon of the deceaſed Capt. Wm Beatſon, Leith.

On

On his paſſage from St Domingo, Capt. Alexander Grant, of the 66th regiment of foot.

A few days ago, in Dawſon-ſtreet, Dublin, Mrs Margaretta Kelly, and a few hours afterwards, in St Andrew's-ſtreet, Mrs French, widow of Colonel French. The hiſtory of theſe two ladies, who thus terminated their mortal courſe on the ſame day, is ſomewhat remarkable: Two officers of the 22d regiment, ſtationed at Minorca in the war of 1756 married two nuns of St Clair, from the convent of Citadella in that iſland; theſe two nuns were the ladies whoſe deaths we now record. They lived in the moſt intimate friendſhip, and paſſed through a long life with the eſteem and admiration of all who knew them. The firſt, for many years deprived of the partner of her affections, ſuſtained many calamities with the moſt unſhaken philoſophy. Mrs French followed the fortunes, and ſhared the fatigues of her huſband in many a weary campaign: She was preſent at the taking of the Havannah in 1762.

In Ireland, the Right Rev. Dr William Foſter, Biſhop of Clogher.

At Paiſley, Baillie Wm Orr, in the 82d year of his age.

At Irvine, Mr Alexander Niſbet, writer, aged 89.

At Dumfries, Capt. John Dove, of the 42d regiment of foot.

At Abbeville, Ireland, the ſeat of the Rt Hon. J. Beresford, Marcus Beresford, Eſq; M. P. for the borough of Dungarvon, &c.

At Great Madow, the Right Hon. Lord Viſcount Montague.

At Lewis, Mrs Jane Beard, aged 91 years.

In the iſland of Dominica, ſoon after her arrival, Lady Georgina Cochrane Johnſtone third daughter of the Earl of Hopetoun, and Lady of the Hon. Andrew Cochrane Johnſtone, governor of that iſland, and brother of the Earl of Dundonald.

On his paſſage home, from the Cape of Good Hope, Captain Parker, of his Majeſty's ſhip Intrepid. He was blown overboard in a hard gale of wind, and drowned.

In the Weſt Indies, Major David Oſwald of the 38th regiment of foot.

At St Kitts, Mr John Mundell, Surgeon.

In the Weſt Indies, Mr Robert Morris, midſhipman, ſon of Wm Morris, Eſq; of Bricehill.

Nov. 1. At Edinburgh, Mr David Stodart, of the Royal Navy, ſon of Commiſſioner Stodart.

2. At Edinburgh, Sir James Riddel, of Ardnamurchan, Bart.

4. At Leith, Lieut. Henry Newton, of the Navy, Reſident agent to his Majeſty's tranſports.

4. Charles Home, Eſq; late Lieutenant Colonel of the 6th regt. of foot.

8. At Kilmoir, Argyleſhire, the Rev. Patrick Campbell, miniſter of that parish.

9. John Widdrington, Eſq; aged 66, one of the Juſtices of the Peace for the county of Northumberland.

10. At Woolfords, Mr Daniel Brown, in the 95th year of his age.

--- At Cupar, Mr James Horſeburgh, ſheriff-clerk of Fife.

12. Capt. Ralph Dundas, late commander of the Prince William Henry, Eaſt Indiaman.

--- At Greenock, Mr John Campbell, writer, aged 72.

13. At Edinburgh, Mr David Wallace, ſecond ſon of Alexander Wallace, Eſq; banker in Edinburgh.

14. Mrs Cumming of Logie.

16. At Newcaſtle, Robert Fiſher, Eſq; Captain and Adjutant in the Weſt Lothian fencibles.

--- At Aberdeen, George Irvine, Eſq; of Boyndlie.

17. The Rev. James Thomſon, in the 76th year of his age.

--- Mrs Margaret Hope, daughter of the late Sir Thomas Hope, Bart. of Craighall.

18. At Edinburgh, Mr John Carlier, ſen. merchant.

--- S. Reynardſon, Eſq; aged 93, one of the Six Clerks in Chancery.

19. At Deal, John Young, Eſq; commander of his Majeſty's ſhip Overyſſel.

20. At Edinburgh, Captain Alexander Donald, of 42d regiment of foot.

--- Caleb Woodinge, Eſq; formerly of the South Sea Houſe, aged 94.

--- At his ſeat in the county of Roſcommon, the Right Hon. the Earl of Kingſton.

22. At London, Lady Mary Irvine. Her Ladyſhip was daughter of George Earl of Granard, and widow of James Irvine, Eſq; of Kingcauſie.

23. At Edinburgh, Mrs Rutherford, dowager of Edgerſton.

24. At Glaſgow, John Bowman, Eſq; in the 96th year of his age, formerly Lord Provoſt of that city.

--- Mrs Monypenny, wife of Lieutenant Colonel Monypenny, of Pitmilly.

Nov. 27. At Derby, Robert Croſby Gordon, Eſq; Major of the 87th regiment of foot, eldeſt ſon of Sir William Gordon, Bart.

28. At Leith Pier, Lieutenant John Ogilvie, of the Royal Navy.

27. At Edinburgh, Charles Stewart, Eſq.

28. Miſs Catharine Burnett, daughter of Sir Robert Burnett of Leys, Bart.

29. At Edinburgh, John Davidſon, Eſq, of Haltree, W. S.

30. At Edinburgh, Mr George Gray of Kirknewton.

— At Ayr, Captain James M'Ghie, of Skeldon.

— At the manſe of Dalrymple, the Rev. Ebenezer Walker, in the 44th year of his miniſtry.

Dec. 1. At Edinburgh, Captain James Colhoun, late of the Scotch Greys, and Barrack maſter for Pierſhill and Edinburgh caſtle.

2. Wm Cairns, Eſq; of Torr, aged 83.

— At Edinburgh, Mrs Elizabeth Haſtie, ſpouſe to Dr Robert Coventry, Profeſſor of Agriculture.

3. At Edinburgh, Dewar Maſterton Gibſont, Eſq; of Pentland.

6. At Brighthelmſtone, Lady Leſlie, daughter of Lord Pelham, and Lady of Lord Leſlie, eldeſt ſon of the Counteſs of Rothes.

7. Mr Robert Park writer in Glaſgow,

— At Edinburgh, Mr Robert Forbes, W. S.

9. At Cariſon manſe, the Rev. Andrew Gray, miniſter of that pariſh.

— At Pittenweem, Lieutenant William Henderſon of the Royal Navy.

11. At Gartmore, Robert Cunningham Graham, Eſq; of Gartmore.

13. At Hampton, General James Johnſtone, Colonel of the Enniſkillen regiment of dragoons, and governor of Quebec.

— At Aberdeen, John Dyce, late of Tilliegreig, aged 74.

— At Auch, Mrs Anne Campbell, widow of Patrick Campbell of Auch, Eſq.

14. At Edinburgh, Miſs Robina Brydone, daughter of Patrick Brydone, Eſq.

17. At Exeter, the Hon. Lieutenant General Thomas Bruce, Colonel of the 16th regiment of foot, and M. P. for Bedwin. He was ſon to the laſt Earl of Kincardine, brother to the late, and uncle to the preſent Earl of Elgin.

— At Campbell-field, Mr William Auchincloſs, late deacon convener of the trades of Glaſgow.

IRISH PEERS.

Viſcount Belmore, to be Earl Belmore.

Viſcount Conyngham, to be Earl Conyngham.

Viſcount Landaff, to be Earl Landaff.

Lord Donoughmore, to be Viſcount Donoughmore.

Baron Carleton, to be Viſcount Carleton.

Baroneſs Oriel, to be Viſcountes Ferrard, of Oriel.

Lord Caledon, to be Viſcount Caledon.

Viſcount Cremorne, to be Baron Cremorne.

Lord Sunderlin, to be Baron Sunderlin.

Right Hon. James Cuffe, to be Baron Tyrawley.

Charles Stanley Monck, Eſq; to be Baron Monck.

Mrs Grace Toler, to be Baroneſs Norwood.

William Power Keating French, Eſq; to be Baron Kilconnel.

Charles Wm Bury, Eſq; to be Baron Tullamore.

Sir George Allanſon Winn, Bart. to be Baron Allanſon and Winn.

Sir John Shore, Bart. Governor General of India, to be Baron Teignmouth.

Rev. Leonard Troughear Holmes to be Baron Holmes.

PREFERMENTS.

The honour of Knight Banneret on Captain Fairfaix, and Captain Trollop, of the Navy, for the gallant behaviour in the engagement with the Dutch fleet.

Alderman Anderſon, to be Lord Mayor of London.

George Oſwald, Eſq; of Scotſtoun, to be Lord Rector of the Univerſity of Glaſgow.

Sir Ralph Abercromby, K. B to be commander in chief of the forces in Ireland.

Hugh Warrender, Eſq; to be deputy keeper of the ſignet.

James Dundas, Eſq; to be deputy keeper of the record of ſaſines.

Mr John Macritchie, writer in Edinburgh, to be agent for the city of Edinburgh.

Mr Charles Cunningham, to be miniſter of the united pariſhes of Lundie and Fowlis.

Mr Jonathan Ranken, to be miniſter of the middle church, in the city of Glaſgow.

SEQUESTRATIONS.

Nov. 8. Peter Hill, in Weſtfarm; and Matthew Hill, in Whiteburn, horſe dealers,

18. Wm Weir, dealer in horſes, in Glaſgow.

21. Wm Archibald ſlater in Edinburgh.

27. Wm Lorimer of Thymis-Hall ſometime ſpirit dealer in Dumfries.

Prices of Grain at Haddington, Dec. 29. Wheat, 25s. Barley, 18s. Oats, 15s. 6d. Peaſe, 13s. 6d. Beans, 13s. 6d.

Edinburgh, *Dec.* 29. Oat-meal, 11d. Bear-meal, 11d. Peaſe-meal, 8½d.

PRICES OF STOCKS.

Dec. 11.	Dec. 27.
Bank Stock 117¼	118½
3 per cent. red. 48⅞	48¾
3 per cent. conſ. ſhut at 49⅜	49½
4 per cent. 59¼	59½
India Stock ſhut	——
Engliſh Tickets ——	——

APPENDIX 1797.

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THOMAS CROMWELL, EARL OF ESSEX.

THOMAS CROMWELL, Earl of Eſſex, an eminent ſtateſman and diſtinguiſhed character in the reign of Henry the VIII., was the ſon of a blackſmith. Tradition continues to point out the place of his birth, which is in ſome meaſure confirmed by the ſurvey of Whimbledon Manor, taken in 1617; as it deſcribes "an ancient cottage, called the Smith's Shop, lying Weſt of the highway leading from Putney to the upper gate; and on the ſouth ſide of the highway from Richmond to Wandsworth, being the ſign of the Anchor." As his extraction was mean, his education was low; but his genius predominated over both. He was, during a conſiderable period, in foreign countries, where he is ſuppoſed to have engaged in the ſecret ſervice of the King, and was ſome time a ſoldier in the army of the Duke of Bourbon, at the ſiege of Rome.

On his return to England he was admitted into the family of Cardinal Wolſey, and appointed his Solicitor; to whom he proved a faithful ſervant and ſincere friend. After the Cardinal's fall, the King employed him (Cromwell) in various ſervices, for which he was rewarded by being ſucceſſively appointed a Privy Councillor, Maſter of the Jewel-office, Clerk of the Hanaper, Chancellor of the Exchequer, Principal Secretary of State, Maſter of the Rolls, Lord keeper of the Privy Seal, a Baron of the Realm, and a Vicegerent over all the ſpiritualities under the King, who was declared ſupreme head of the church. All the power reſulting from his high ſtation, and the royal favour, he employed in promoting the Reformation; and with this view he became the inſtrument in diſſolving the monaſteries, depreſſing the clergy, and expelling the monks. The king at length advanced

him to the dignity of the Earl of Eſſex, conſtituted him Lord High Chamberlain of England, and loaded him with the confiſcated eſtates of religious houſes. Nor can it be conſidered as an unintereſting circumſtance in the life of this extraordinary man, that, among the numerous poſſeſſions he acquired by royal favour, we can number the manor of the place were he was born.

But the plan he formed to ſecure his greatneſs proved his ruin; ſuch is the weakneſs of human policy, and the ſhort-ſighted views of man. He had employed all his power to procure a marriage between Henry and Anne of Cleves; and as her friends were all Lutherans, he imagined that ſuch a circumſtance might tend to bring down the Popiſh party at court: at the ſame time, he naturally expected great ſupport from a Queen of his own making. But the capricious monarch taking a diſguſt to his bride, conceived an immediate and irreconcileable averſion to the principal promoter of the marriage. He was accordingly accuſed of hereſy, which was wholly improbable, and of other offences which he could have juſtified, by the King's orders: but ſo enraged was his late maſter againſt him, that no one dared to appear and plead his cauſe. One man, to his honour be it recorded, proved the friend of the fallen Cromwell, when every other friend had forſaken him: Archbiſhop Cranmer addreſſed a letter to the King in his favour, in which he ſolemnly declared it to be his opinion, that no prince ever had a more faithful ſervant. He ſuffered on Tower Hill, with great fortitude and compoſure, in the month of July 1540. His character has been differently treated by different parties: but it is well known that he preferred more men of letters than any of his predeceſſors. Nor ſhall we heſitate to declare our opinion, that he deſerved a better maſter, and a better fate.

From the Hiſtory of the Rivers of Great Britain.

ANECDOTES AND GLEANINGS.

SIR ROBERT WALPOLE.

SEEN him I have, but in his happier hour
Of ſocial pleaſure ill-exchang'd for power;
Seen him, uncumber'd with the venial tribe,
Smile without art, and win without a bribe.

We muſt not judge of this miniſter's character from the Diſſertation on Parties, nor from the eloquent Philipics (for eloquent they were) uttered againſt him in both houſes of Parliament. Hume has drawn his portrait with candour and impartiality: and ſome of his moſt vehement antagoniſts, particularly the great Lord Chatham, lived to allow the merits of that *long* and *pacific* miniſtry, which ſo much extended the commerce, and conſequently enlarged the riches of the country.

When Pulteney and the patriots had reſolved not to oppoſe Sir Robert's famous Exciſe ſcheme, as really thinking it a wiſe, expeditious, and a certain method of collecting the revenue, Lord Bolingbroke went round to them all, and earneſtly told them they *muſt oppoſe* it, unleſs they wiſhed Sir Robert to be miniſter for ever. 'The wiſer any meaſure is,' added he, 'the more thoſe in oppoſition, and out of place, ſhould oppoſe it: a fooliſh ſcheme falls to the ground of itſelf.'

Juſt before Atterbury went into exile, a large fine dropped to him as Dean of Weſtminſter, but he could have no right to receive it, without the ſeal being ſet to the leaſe in a full chapter. Sir Robert Walpole earneſtly inquired, whether a chapter could not be held in the Tower, that the biſhop might receive the benefit of this fine. A chapter was accordingly there held, and the biſhop received a thouſand pounds for his ſhare of the fine. This anecdote, which is well authenticated, does great credit

credit to the liberality aud good temper of Sir Robert Walpole.

FREDERICK PRINCE OF WALES.

This prince poſſeſſed many, of what the late king of Pruſſia called, "ces qualités ſociables qui s'allient ſi rarement avec la morgue & la grandeur des ſouverains—thoſe ſociable qualities ſo ſeldom blended with the ſtatelineſs and grandeur of ſovereigns."

At a viſit at Twickenham, the Prince very pleaſantly obſerved to Pope, that his profeſſed love to princes was inconſiſtent with his diſlike of kings, ſince princes may in time be kings.—"Sir, (replied Pope) "I conſider Royalty, under the known and authorized type of a lion: while he is young, and before his nails are grown, he may be approached and careſſed with ſafety and pleaſure."

KING JAMES, AND ROB GIB.

One day king James being out a hunting had bad ſport, owing to a deluge of rain falling. In returning to Falkland, when any of the Nobility rode up and ſaid any thing, his anſwer was "go to heil," this gade na well down wi a Scot's ſtomack. Rob at the dirty'ſt part of the road, gallopped by, and plaſh'd his majeſty. "Seize that fellow ſaid James." When brought, back "Where was you going Sir!" an't pleaſe your Grace I was going to hell with the reſt of the nobility. He took the reproof and made a good landlord for the reſt of the day.

LAPLAND COURTSHIP.

THE ſea Laplanders and the mountain Laplanders differ conſiderably from each other in cuſtoms and manners. The ſea Laplander, or fiſherman, is more ſtationary than the other, and, in ſome reſpects, more comfortably ſituated, though not ſo rich as the mountaineer, whoſe numerous herds of rein-deer afford him every neceſſary of life.

One rein-deer cow becomes the property of a child as ſoon as it is born. The calves of this cow are carefully preſerved, and the young Laplander finds a valuable eſtate belonging to him, when he arrives at the age of diſcretion, and when he is qualified to begin the trade of his fathers. But, among the Laplanders, as among other northern nations, a man is not looked upon to be properly eſtabliſhed in the world before he is married. A Lapland youth, whether inſpired by love's ſweet flame, or enamoured with jointure-land, commences his ſuit by preſenting the young lady with rich furs or ſuch articles, and the parents with brandy. Upon this momentous occaſion, and in his journey to the hut of his laſs, which is ſometimes at a great diſtance, the lover is accompanied with a friend. The dying ſwain allows this friend to go firſt into the cottage: he remains in the cold fields, and waits with equal patience and anxiety to hear of his fate. The ſalute upon entering their houſes is by inclining the head, and by naming the inhabitants holy brothers, or holy ſiſters.

If the brandy is accepted by the parents, and the eloquent ſpeech delivered by this love-token approved of, the young man, covered with a wolf ſkin, is deſired to approach. Encouraged by this dawn of hope, he ſtrokes his forehead, and makes an oration upon the beauty and high accompliſhments of his intended bride, as his procurator had immediately before on the wealth and courage of the ſuitor. Should it happen that the young couple are neither of them rich, they remain for ſome time with the bride's parents, and until they have acquired, by their induſtrious exertions, a ſufficient ſtock.

If, after matters have been agreed upon, the bride retract from her engagements, the parents are obliged to return every preſent made during the courtſhip, and to pay the expence which the bridegroom had been put to in brandy and other articles, in entertainments.

The original ceremonials of marriage in Lapland were very ſimple, and required only the conſent of the parties;

and a lucky day to cohabit together: thoſe among them who have been converted to Chriſtianity, permit the Ruſſian, Swediſh, or Norwegian prieſt to unite their hands.

The newly married couple being arrived in their hut, commence the buſineſs of life. The huſband attends to his herds or to his fiſhing, as his ſituation may be upon the mountains or by the ſea ſhore. The wife is employed within doors in manufacturing not only all articles of dreſs, but in making furniture, as cradles, ſpoons, ſhovels, and diſhes of various ſorts; the huſband aſſiſts in theſe manufactures when at leiſure. The Laplanders uſe no chairs: like their anceſtors in Aſia, they ſit croſs-legged upon mats or ſkins laid upon the floor, which ſerve, at the ſame time, for the table-cloth at dinner and other meals.

The Laponian language by the accounts of ſome writers is uncouth; others report it to be ſoft and expreſſive. M. Leem compiled a dictionary of the Lapland language, and we owe to him the moſt credit for the latter character of it.

ACCOUNT OF THE ISLAND OF ST HELENA.

FROM SIR G. STAUNTON'S EMBASSY TO CHINA.

ST HELENA lies in the ſouthern part of the Atlantic ocean, diſtant many degrees of longitude and latitude from any continent or other iſland; and may be conſidered as the ſummit of a great mountain, whoſe roots are buried in the bottom of the ſea. Above its ſurface the iſland riſes in towering eminences, hid frequently in the clouds. The aſhes of a volcano cover ſtill ſome parts of it; and the whole has probably been protruded upwards by the immenſe power of the ſubaqueous fire. However, no part of the iſland hitherto examined ſeems to have undergone any degree of liquefaction. No layers of minerals, and few of ſtone, have been diſcovered in its bowels. The ſummit of the iſland is wooded; but is ſo cold, that fruits will ſcarcely ripen in it. Clear rills of water iſſue from the higher peaks, and take their courſe abruptly down towards the vallies, which they contribute to fertilize.—Storms are little known in the immediate neighbourhood of this iſland. Thunder is rarely heard, or lightning perceived in it; from whence it is conjectured, that little electric matter is ſcattered in its atmoſphere.

The circumference of St Helena meaſures ſomewhat leſs than twenty-eight miles. Along the whole coaſt to leeward, or to the northward, ſhips may anchor in perfect ſecurity in all ſeaſons of the year: but the bank ſhelves ſo abruptly afterwards, that the anchorage, being in deep water, is inſecure. The tide ſeldom riſes above three feet and a half; but the ſurge of the ſea is ſometimes tremendous; and ſeveral accidents happened in approaching or quitting the ſhore, until a wharf was erected lately, which renders the arrival there, and departure from it, perfectly ſafe.

This little ſpot was diſcovered upwards of two centuries ago by the Portuguеze. It was taken from them by the Engliſh; ſurpriſed from the latter by the Dutch; and laſtly, recovered by the Engliſh, likewiſe by ſurpriſe. The ſteep eminences which intervene between the vallies, that are the chief ſeats of population, render the communication from one part of the iſland to another ſlow and difficult. Planters on the windward ſide of the iſland conſider a journey to the leeward, or ſeat of government, as a ſerious undertaking. Several of them take that opportunity of paying their reſpects to the Governor, which is called there, ſometimes, going to Court. There are St Helena planters who have not travelled ſo far. At preſent, by order of the Governor, there are ſignals ſo placed all over the iſland, as to give inſtant notice of the approach of veſſels to any part of it.

The ſituation of St Helena, in the

tract of the ships from India and China to Europe, induced the Directors of the East-India Company to turn their attention towards rendering it a place of convenient and comfortable refreshment, particularly in their passage home. This has been effected at no inconsiderable expence. Before the island was inhabited, the spontaneous productions that it yielded, which could be of any use to man, are said to have been little more than celery or purslain. Cattle, fruits, and vegetables have since been introduced into it from India, Africa, and Europe; and human industry has, in a little time, enabled it not only to supply sufficient provisions for its ordinary sojourners; but to afford refreshments of most kinds to the various visitors that stand in need of them after landing from a long voyage. The numbers of such visitors, including the crews as well as passengers of the ships lying there at anchor, is sometimes equal to the whole number of the settlement. The chief officers, passengers, and invalids, reside generally ashore during the stay of their respective ships. There are no inns; but every house is open for the reception of strangers, who are considered for the time, as a part of the family. A moderate compensation is fixed for the host, in return for all the comforts which he ministers to his guests. For those who remain chiefly on board, quantities of fresh meat and vegetables, so grateful and so wholesome after a long marine diet, are furnished at regulated prices to the ships. Supplies of fresh water and fuel are also provided for the remainder of their voyage. In the year 1794, the island had not long recovered from a great calamity, a severe drought. Of the stock alone of horned cattle, the loss was computed at 3000, through the want of food and water. The evil raged the same length of time, about three years, as it did nearer to the coast of Africa; but partly from the natural resources of the country, and partly from the management of Government, it was much less fatal in its effects at the island of St Helena than at those of the Cape de Verd; and few traces of it appeared in the former, when the Embassy passed there. Verdure was restored to the vallies, and to such higher grounds as were not too steep to retain the moisture with which they had been blessed. Lands laid out in gardens were improved with considerable advantages to the proprietors. Those of the garrison were sufficient to provide plenty of wholesome vegetables for the sick as well as healthy soldiers. For this purpose the humane Governor, desirous to derive public advantage from private offences, allowed the delinquent soldiers to commute, for labour at the military gardens, the punishments to which they were condemned.

Several sorts of fruit trees imported into the island had been destroyed by a particular insect; but encouragement has been given for the cultivation of those which that mischievous animal is known to spare, such as the apple, for example, with all the varieties of which it is susceptible. The plantain and banana, or the two species of the *musa*, thrive also remarkably well. The ground is fertile, and in favourable seasons produces, in some instances, double crops within the year. Plantations, however, of cotton, indigo, or cane, were not found to answer: though some good coffee has been produced in it. A botanic garden has been established near the Governor's country-house. An intelligent gardener has been sent to take care of it by the Company; and a vast variety of trees, plants, and flowers of different, and sometimes opposite climates, are already collected in it. The surrounding sea abounds in esculent fish; and seventy different species, including turtle, have been caught upon the coasts. Whales are seen in great numbers playing round the island, where it is supposed the southern whale fishery might be carried on to great national advantage.

The country is chiefly cultivated by

blacks. Perſons of that colour were brought in a ſtate of ſlavery to it by its firſt European ſettlers; and it ſeldom happens that white men will ſubmit to common work where there are black ſlaves to whom it may be transferred. Theſe were for a long time under the unlimited dominion of the owners, until a repreſentation of the abuſes made of that power induced the India Company to place them under the immediate protection of the magiſtracy, and to enact various regulations in their favour; which have contributed to render them, in a great degree, comfortable and ſecure. Theſe regulations may have hurt, at firſt, the feelings of the owners of ſlaves, but not their real intereſt; for it appears, that before their introduction there was a loſs, upon an average, of about ten in a hundred ſlaves every year, to be ſupplied at a very heavy expence; whereas, under the preſent ſyſtem, they naturally increaſe. All future importation of ſlaves into the Iſland is prohibited.

Beſides the blacks in a ſtate of ſlavery, there are ſome who are free. The labour of theſe tending to diminiſh the value of that of ſlaves, the free blacks became once obnoxious to ſome ſlave owners; who had ſufficient influence, in a Grand Jury, to repreſent them as without viſible means of gaining a livelihood, and liable to become burdenſome to the community; but upon examination it appeared, that all free blacks of age to work were actually employed; that not one of them had been tried for a crime for ſeveral years, nor had any of them been upon the pariſh. They are now, by the humane interpoſition of the Company, placed under the immediate protection of the Government, and put nearly upon a footing with the other free inhabitants, who, when accuſed of crimes, have the privilege of a Jury, as well as in civil cauſes.

While the ſhips are riding in the roads, and the inhabitants buſy in ſupplying their wants, or eager to entertain their gueſts, their minds occupied alſo with foreign events, of which the ſtrangers bring accounts to them, any diſſenſions ſubſiſting among individuals in the place are ſuſpended for the time; but it is ſaid, that when the ſhipping ſeaſon is over, and the ſettlement is void of buſineſs, as well as of topics of diſcuſſion on diſtant incidents, inteſtine diviſions ſometimes revive; it is, however, an object of Government to divert their minds from private feuds, by engaging them in military exerciſes, or even in domeſtic amuſements and dramatic entertainments.

The principal ſettlement of St Helena has the peculiar advantage of uniting the ſhelter of a leeward ſituation with the coolneſs of windward gales. The ſouth-eaſt wind blows conſtantly down the valley, rendering a reſidence in it pleaſant as well as healthy. The country is ſo fertile, and the climate ſo congenial to the human feelings, that perhaps it would be difficult to find out a ſpot where perſons, not having acquired a reliſh for the enjoyments of the world, or already advanced in life, and ſurfeited with them, could have a better chance of protracting their days in eaſe, health, and comfort.

The hills on each ſide this happy valley, like thoſe which preſent themſelves to the ſea, are extremely ſteep, and require ſeveral alternate traverſes to render the aſcent along them practicable. From the Heights the view downwards to the ſea is indeed tremendous. It is related upon the ſpot, that an unfortunate mariner, willing, in the gaiety of his humour, to throw from thence a pebble on the deck of his ſhip, lying at anchor at a diſtance in the road, he launched it from the overhanging precipice with ſuch unreſtrained exertion, that his own body obeyed the impulſe, and he flew headlong into the wide gulf below. A man on board the Lion, while at anchor in twenty fathoms or one hundred and twenty feet water, made at this time ſome bold but ſucceſsful experiments. This man who